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# M E M O I R S OF THE Royal Society ; Or, a New ABRIDGMENT of the Philosophical Transactions.

Giving an ACCOUNT of the Undertakings, Studies, and  
Labours of the LEARNED and INGENIOUS in many  
considerable Parts of the World ; from the first Institution of  
that ILLUSTRIOS SOCIETY in 1665, to 1740.

In the Course of this WORK, every Thing is carefully  
extracted from the ORIGINALS, according to the Order of  
Time ; the LATIN TRACTS Englished ; the Terms of  
ART explained ; the Theoretical PARTS applied to Practice ;  
and the whole Illustrated with a great Number of  
COPPER PLATES.

A PERFORMANCE of general Use for the Knowledge and  
Improvement of MATHEMATICKS, NATURAL PHI-  
LOSOPHY, TRADES, MANUFACTURES, ARTS, &c.

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By Mr. B A D D A M.

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The SECOND EDITION.

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in the Strand.

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M E M O I R S

of the

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Or a New Description of the

Philological Transactions.

Giving an Account of the Undiscovered Sciences and  
Inventions of the Indians and Americans in America  
comparative Parts of the World; from the first Discovery of  
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A Particular Account of the Monuments and  
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BY MR. BACON

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MDCCLXV.



# M E M O I R S

## OF THE

# R O Y A L S O C I E T Y;

Being a New ABRIDGMENT of the  
PHILOSOPHICAL TRANSACTIONS:

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*Experiments on the Indian Magnetic Sand; by M. Muschenbroek.* Philosophical Transactions N° 432. p. 297.

**T**H E Indian sand, which is brought to Holland, is said to be chiefly gather'd upon the sea-shore in Persia; after which it is boil'd in water, to free it of its saltneſs; and after this it becomes a black powder, consisting of grains of different bigness; some of which have a very rough ſurface, and others one part of their ſurface ſomething rough, and the other very ſhining: Their figure is very irregular, like grains of common ſand; only this Indian ſand is ſmaller. These little lumps have neither taste nor ſmell, and are friable; ſo as to be eaſily reduced to a very ſubtile powder. It has ſome parts, which are ſtrongly attracted by the loadſtone; and others ſo very unactive, as ſcarcely to ſeem to be magnetical: The blackeſt are the ſtrongeſt, but the unactive ones are more ſhining, and inclining to the colour of lead; these are in the greateſt quantity; and from them the others are got out by a loadſtone. The ingenious Montenus has ſeveral ways examin'd ſuch a kind of ſand, which is brought from Virginia,

## MEMOIRS of the

and described it in *Phil. Trans.* N° 197. M. Muschenbroek examin'd the Indian sand another way; of which he gave an account in his *Physical Dissertations*, p. 127. But a great deal still remain'd to be consider'd; and as there is a great deal more of this substance of the lazy or unactive than of the active or magnetic sort; it was proper to try, whether a magnetic virtue might not be excited or increas'd in all of it; and after a few trials he found the thing succeed. He suspected that there might perhaps be too great a quantity of sulphur adhering to the sand, to suffer it to be turned into any metalline *regulus* by a long continuance in the fire; he therefore, toasted it in an open crucible for two hours with half the quantity of pot-ash; he afterwards wash'd away the salt with water, and the sand remain'd much blacker than before, of which he found more than a quarter endued with a greater magnetic force. M. Muschenbroek does not scruple to attribute this virtue to the salt; because tho' the action of the fire alone does increase the force of the sand; yet it does not give it near so much attractive force.

And because common black soap is made of oil boil'd with a *lixivium* of pot-ash, he had a mind to try whether soap might not do more than salt alone in exciting the virtue in the sand: So he mix'd the sand with an equal quantity of soap, which he first exposed to a gentle fire in an open crucible, to dry up the soap which swells very much; then the fire was heightened for  $\frac{3}{4}$  of an hour, the oily substance entirely consumed, and the matter in the crucible strongly fir'd: Then afterwards boiling it in water, and washing it well, he obtain'd a black sand, which was all endu'd with a vigorous attracting force. Pleas'd with this success, he had a mind to try whether he could excite a greater force in it: Wherefore he again toasted it with black soap as before, and even a third time; but no addition was thereby made to its virtue. He found that keeping it too long in the fire is as prejudicial as keeping it too short a time; between half an hour and an hour seem'd to him the most proper space of time.

He afterwards added to the black soap half the quantity of salt of tarr, mixing therewith an equal quantity of sand; which, when expos'd in a crucible to a reverberatory fire for  $\frac{3}{4}$  of an hour, he wash'd in water; and then so considerable was the virtue of the sand, that if it did not exceed the former, it at least was equal to it.

And

And because he had observ'd the oiliness of the soap to conduce much to excite the virtue in the sand; he mixt beef-tallow with an equal quantity of sand, and having closed the crucible very well, he expos'd the whole mass to a reverberatory fire for two hours; whereby the sand became much blacker, and receiv'd a great deal of attractive virtue: But that sand, which was burned two hours with an equal quantity of pitch, became more active, as also very black, subtile, and very little shining: But when it was expos'd a longer time in the same crucible, he observ'd it to be weaker; as also when it was in the crucible with the pitch, but  $\frac{1}{2}$  of an hour, it scarce acquir'd any virtue: So that there must be a determined action of fire to raire the virtue in the sand. Yet he could not excite a greater virtue in the sand than by the following means; viz. mixing the sand in the crucible with equal parts of rosin, pitch, frankincense, and rape-oil, and exposing it to a reverberatory fire for an hour, having first clos'd up the crucible well. Between the black coals of the oily matter, there sticks a very black sand, which leaps up swiftly to the loadstone, as soon as it is brought near it. Then he considered whether the sand did not acquire the greatest force, as it came nearer to the nature of steel, by burning it with the above-mentioned bodies; and suspecting this, in order to try it, he put it among such bodies as turn iron into steel, according to the operations describ'd by that great Experimenter M. Reaumur, in that excellent book, entituled, *The Art of turning Iron into Steel*. He, therefore, took three parts of sand, two parts of chimney foot, and of sea-salt, powder'd charcoal, and ashes, one part each. Having accurately mixed all these bodies together, they were expos'd for six hours in a close crucible to a strong fire; and then the whole mass was boil'd and wash'd in water, then dried, and so receiv'd a great deal of attracting force: but it was not near so active as that prepar'd with soap, or in the manner last described.

M. Muschenbroek conjectured at first, that this sand is an imperfect magnet, or subtile powder of it, which, when it is grown up into a greater lump, forms the common loadstones: But when he found by experience that common loadstones expos'd to the fire, according to some of the methods above-mentioned, did rather lose of their force than gain, he alter'd his opinion, and owns that he has not hitherto penetrated into the knowledge of this matter.

What-

Whatever it be, it is certain that there are several kinds of this sand, brought from different countries of the earth: For, it is brought from *Perſia*; and ſome from *Virginia*: There is another ſort in *Italy*, common enough at *Leghorn*: And this laſt is naturally very attractive: There are two ſorts found in the *Eber*, a river of *Haffia*; of which one reſembles the *Itali-an*, and the other conſists of large grains, almost as big as hemp-ſeed, but ſcarce having any virtue.

M. *Muſchenbroek* had, beſides, a very vigorous ſort, which he is told was got near old *Ragusa* in *Dalmatia*. The ſeveral kinds of this ſand are unknown, which time and the diligent obſervations of philosophers muſt hereafter ſhew.

*Some Observations made in London; by Mr. George Graham; and at Black-river in Jamaica; by Mr. Colin Campbell, about the going of a Clock; in order to determine the difference between the lengths of Isochronal Pendulums in those Places; and communicated by Mr. Bradley.* Phil. Trans. N° 432. p. 302.

**T**HO' it be upwards of 60 years, ſince M. *Ricker* first diſcover'd, that pendulum's of the ſame length do not perform their vibrations in equal times in diſtinct latitudes; and tho' ſeveral experiments, ſince made in diſtinct parts of the earth, concur to prove, that pendulum's ſwinging ſeconds are in general ſhorter as we approach the equator: Yet what the real diſference is between their lengths in diſtinct latitudes, does not ſeem to have been determin'd with ſufficient exactneſs by the obſervations that have hitherto been communicated to the public; as may be gather'd from the 20th. propositiōn of the third book of Sir *Isaac Newton's Principia*, where they are compaſt as well with each other, as with the theory of that illuſtrious author. It were, therefore, to be wiſh'd that more of this kind of experiments could be made with greater accuracy in proper places, by ſuch persons as have ſufficient ſkill and opportunities to do it; that we might thereby be enabled to judge with more certainty concerning the true figure of the earth, and the nature of its conſtituent parts.

As an inducement to ſuch as may have it in their power to put the like again into practice, here follows an account of a very curioſ experiment of this ſort, made in *Jamaica* by Mr. *Campbell*: His clock, which was made by the ingenious Mr. *Graham*, was ſo carefully contriv'd, that its pendulum might at pleasure be reduced to the ſame length, whenever there ſhould

should be occasion to remove the clock from one place, and set it up in another.

This clock, being chiefly designed for astronomical observations, had no striking part, and its pendulum was adjusted to such a length, that in *London* it vibrated seconds of sidereal, and not solar, time. When it was finish'd, Mr. *Graham* fix'd it up in a room, situated backward from the street, and on the northside of his house to prevent its being disturbed by coaches, or other carriages that pass'd thro' the streets, and that it might be as little affected by the sun as possible. Having set it going, he compared it with the transits of the star *lucida aquilæ* over the meridian, which pass'd

	Days	h	'	"	
August 1731	20th at	8	59	15	by the clock.
	22 at	8	59	18	
	23 at	8	59	20 $\frac{1}{2}$	
	25 at	8	59	22	
	28 at	8	59	25 $\frac{1}{2}$	
	29 at	8	59	26	
	30 at	8	59	27	

Hence it appears that the clock gained 12 seconds in 10 apparent revolutions of the star.

In order to estimate how much the pendulum may be lengthened by greater degrees of heat, or how much slower the clock would go on that account, when remov'd into a warmer climate, a thermometer was fixed by the side of it; and between the hours of 10 and 11 o'clock in the morning, and at night, notice was taken at what height the spirits stood, and the mean height for each day was as follows.

	Days	Therm.	Divisions.
August 1731	21	32 $\frac{1}{2}$	Divisions.
	22	30 $\frac{3}{4}$	
	23	28 $\frac{3}{4}$	
	24	27 $\frac{3}{4}$	
	25	28 $\frac{1}{4}$	
	26	27 $\frac{1}{4}$	
	27	27 $\frac{1}{2}$	
	28	27 $\frac{1}{2}$	
	29	27 $\frac{1}{2}$	
	30	27 $\frac{3}{4}$	

Hence

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Hence the mean height for all these days was about  $28 \frac{1}{2}$  divisions.

The clock-weight, that keeps the pendulum in motion, is  $12 \text{ lb. } 10 \frac{1}{2} \text{ oz.}$  and is to be wound up once a month. The weight of the pendulum itself is 17 pounds; and (during the time that the clock was compar'd with the transits of the star) it vibrated each way from the perpendicular  $1^{\circ} 45'$ . The magnitude of the vibrations was estimated by means of a brass arch, which was fixed just under the lower end of the rod of the pendulum, and divided into degrees, &c.

August 31, Mr. Graham took off the weight belonging to the clock, and hung on another of  $6 \text{ lb. } 3 \text{ oz.}$  and with this weight the pendulum vibrated only  $1^{\circ} 15'$  on each side; and the clock went 1 second and  $\frac{1}{2}$  slower in 24 hours, than when its own weight of  $12 \text{ lb. } 10 \frac{1}{2} \text{ oz.}$  was hung on.

This experiment shews that a small difference in the arcs, described by the pendulum, or a small alteration in the weight that keeps it in motion, will cause no great difference in the duration of the vibrations; and therefore a little alteration in the tenacity of the oil upon the pivots, or in the foulness of the clock, will not cause it to accelerate, or retard its motion sensibly: From whence we may conclude, that whatever difference there shall appear to be, between the going of the clock at *London* and in *Jamaica*, it must be entirely owing to the lengthening of the pendulum by heat, and the diminution of the force of gravity upon it.

Mr. Graham sent very full directions to Mr. Campbell, describing in what manner the clock was to be fixed up, and how the pendulum might be reduced exactly to the same state as it was when in *England*; but no intimation was given concerning the going of the clock, that the experiment might be made with all possible care, and without any bias or prejudice in favour of any hypothesis, or former observations.

In July 1732 we receiv'd an account of the success of the experiment by the hands of Mr. Joseph Harris, who was present at the making of it in *Jamaica*; and who brought over with him the original journal of the observations of the transits of 2 stars, (*viz.* *Sirius* and  $\beta$  *Canis majoris*) over the meridian, compared with the clock, after it was fixed up in *Jamaica*, as Mr. Graham had directed; together with the height of the spirits of the aforesaid thermometer, on the several days of observation.

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The chief of those observations are contain'd in the following table; the first column shews the day of the month; the second the name of the star, and the time by the clock of its observed transit over the meridian; the third contains the hour of the day, when the thermometer was observ'd, together with the height of the spirits at those hours; the morning hours being denoted by the letter A, and those of the afternoon by the letter P.

1732	Canis Majoris.	Time of Transit.	Hour of Day.	Thermome- ter.	1732	Canis Majoris.	Time of Transit.	Hour of Day.	Thermome- ter.
					Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May
Jan.	h	"	h		23	β II 59 50	10½A 14¾	9½A 17½	
	α 12 22 14		9½P 11			2	α	2 P	9
24	Cloudy.		11½A 15¼					5 P	6
					25	β II 55 40	8½A 17½	8½A 19	
	α 12 18 4		9½P 11½					1 P	9½
26	β II 53 35		8 A 20					9 P	9
	α 12 16 00		2 P 8½		27	α 12 13 55	7 A 17½	6½A 18	
			9 P 10			β II 51 31	2 P 8½	12	9½
						α	9½P 12½	9 P	8
28	β II 49 26		7 A 20½						
	α 12 11 51		2 P 11						
			10 P 12		29	β II 47 22	6¾A 19	7 A 18½	
						α 12 9 46	3 P 9	4 P	7½
							9 P 11½	8½P	8
					30	Cloudy.	7 A 20½		
						4 P 7			
						11 P 13			
31	β II 43 12		7 A 20		31	β II 43 12	7 A 20	6½A 21½	
	α 12 5 37		9 P 8½					8½P	8½
Feb.	β II 41 8½		10 A 18¾						
	α 12 3 33		11 P 16						
					10	β II 22 12½	7½A 16		
						α II 44 37	11½A 10		
							3¾P 3¾		
							8½P 6		

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1732	Canis Majoris.	Time of Transit.	Height of Declination.	Thermometer.		1732	Canis Majoris.	Time of Transit.	Height of Declination.		Thermometer.
				Lev	Dip				Lev	Dip	
Feb.	$\beta$	II 20 6	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ A 16			Feb.	$\beta$	Cloudy.	8 A 14		
11	$\alpha$	II 42 30	12 9 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$ P 5 $\frac{3}{4}$		16	$\alpha$	II 32 4	8 P 7		
12	$\beta$	II 18 0	10 A 17 $\frac{1}{2}$			17	$\beta$	II 7 34	12 12		
	$\alpha$	II 40 24	12 13				$\alpha$	II 29 59	8 P 6 $\frac{1}{4}$		
			8 P 5 $\frac{3}{4}$			18	$\beta$	II 5 29	12 12 $\frac{1}{4}$		
							$\alpha$	II 27 53			
13	Clouds.		9 A 17								
			8 P 6								
14	$\beta$	Cloudy.	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ A 16								
	$\alpha$	II 36 15	12 11								
			8 P 10								
15	Clouds.		9 A 18								
			12 13 $\frac{3}{4}$								
			8 $\frac{1}{2}$ P 7 $\frac{1}{2}$								

The pendulum, during this interval, vibrated about  $1^{\circ} 52'$  each way from the perpendicular.

The transits of the stars over the meridian were observed with a telescope, fixt at right angles to an horizontal axis, whose ends lay exactly east and west; by the turning of which axis, the line of collimation of the telescope was constantly directed in the plane of the meridian. This instrument was daily adjusted to a mark, fixt in the meridian; and in the journal, between the second and third of February, the following remark was made.

N. B. This day was hotter than usual, as appears by the thermometer; and the transit instrument had lost the level a little; but after we had adjusted it, it pointed exactly to our meridian mark; and therefore we are at a loss for the cause of this difference in the clock.

From the foregoing table it appears, that the clock lost  $54' 21''$  in 26 revolutions of the stars; that is, about  $2' 5''$  and  $\frac{1}{2}$  in one revolution; the difference from this medium somewhat varying upon account of a greater or less degree of heat on different days.

The mean of all the observed heights of the thermometer from Jan. 26, to Feb. 18, was about 12 divisions and  $\frac{1}{2}$ : Therefore, the difference between the mean heights of the thermometer at *Jamaica* and *London*, during the intervals of the respective observations, was 15 divisions and  $\frac{1}{2}$ ; the spirit stand-

standing so much higher in *Jamaica*, because of the greater heat in that island.

That we might be able to judge, how much the different degrees of heat, corresponding to any number of divisions upon this thermometer would cause the clock to go slower, by lengthening its pendulum, Mr. *Graham* took notice of the lowest point, to which the spirits sunk at *London* in the winter 1731, and the greatest height, to which they rose in the following summer; and comparing the motion of the spirits in this thermometer, with the alterations in another made with quicksilver, which he had for some years made use of; he concluded that at *London* the spirits in this thermometer would stand (one year with another) about 60 divisions higher in summer than in winter.

By several years experience he likewise found, that his clocks (of the same sort with Mr. *Campbell's*) when expos'd, as usual, to the different degrees of heat and cold of our climate, do not vary in their motion above 25 or 30 seconds in a day.

From these observations and experiments we may, therefore, reasonably conclude, that sufficient allowance will be made for the lengthening of the pendulum by heat, if we suppose the clock upon that account to go one second in a day slower, when the spirits of this thermometer stand two divisions higher, and in the same proportion for other heights.

Admitting then that the mean height of the thermometer, while the clock was compar'd with the stars at *Jamaica*, exceeded that at *London* between 15 and 20 divisions; if we allow eight or nine seconds, upon that account, the remaining difference must be entirely owing to the difference of the force of gravity in the two places.

Upon comparing the observations, it appears, that in one apparent revolution of the stars, the clock went  $2' 6''$  and  $\frac{1}{2}$  slower in *Jamaica* than at *London*; deducting, therefore,  $8''$  and  $\frac{1}{2}$ , on account of the greater heat in *Jamaica*, there remains a difference of  $1' 58''$ , which must necessarily arise from the diminution of gravity, in the place nearest the equator.

Mr. *Bradley* has allow'd the clock to have lost somewhat more on account of the difference of heat than the mean heights of the thermometer may seem to require, upon a supposition, that the total heat of the days, compared with the cold of the nights, bears a greater proportion in *Jamaica* than

than *London*; but if that supposition be not admitted; then the clock in *Jamaica* must have gone rather more than  $1' 58''$  in a day slower than in *England*.

Mr. *Campbell's* observations were made at *Black-river* in  $18^\circ$  N. Lat. Now if we suppose with Sir *Isaac Newton*, that the difference in the going of the clock is owing to the greater elevation of the parts of the earth towards the equator, it will follow from these observations, and what is deliver'd by him in Prop. 20. of the third book of his *Principia*, that the equatorial diameter is to the polar as 190 to 189; the difference between them being 41 miles and  $\frac{1}{2}$ ; which is somewhat greater than what Sir *Isaac Newton* had computed from his theory, upon the supposition of an uniform density in all the parts of the earth.

Without entering into the dispute about the figure of the earth, Mr. *Bradley* at present supposes with Sir *Isaac Newton*, that the increase of gravity, as we recede from the equator, is nearly as the square of the sine of the latitude, and that the difference in the length of pendulums is proportional to the augmentation or diminution of gravity. Upon these suppositions Mr. *Bradley* collects from the above-mentioned observations, that if the length of a simple pendulum (that swings seconds at *London*, be 39.126 English inches, the length of one at the equator would be 39.00, and at the poles 39.206. And (abstracting from the alteration on account of different degrees of heat) a pendulum clock, that would go true time under the equator, will gain  $3' 48''$  and  $\frac{1}{4}$  in a day at the poles: But the number of seconds, which it would gain in any other latitude, would be to  $3' 48''$  and  $\frac{1}{4}$  nearly, as the square of the sine of that latitude, to the square of the radius: Whence it follows, that the number of seconds a clock will lose in a day, upon its removal to a place nearer the equator, will be to  $3' 48''$  and  $\frac{1}{4}$  nearly, as the difference between the squares of the sines of the latitudes of the two places, to the square of the radius. Thus the difference of the squares of the sines of  $51^\circ$  and  $\frac{1}{2}$  and  $18^\circ$ , the latitudes of *London* and *Black-river*, being to the square of the radius, as 118 to 228 and  $\frac{1}{4}$ , the clock will go  $1' 58''$  in a day slower at *Black-river* than at *London*, as was found by observation.

It may be hoped, that Mr. *Campbell's* success in this experiment, and the little trouble there is in making it, will induce those gentlemen who may hereafter carry pendulum clocks

clocks into distant countries, to attempt a repetition of it after his manner; that is, by keeping or restoring the pendulum's of their clocks to the same length in the different places, and carefully comparing them with the heavens; and at the same time taking notice of the different degrees of heat, by means of a thermometer. From a variety of such experiments we should be enabled to determine how far Sir Isaac Newton's theory is conformable to truth, with much greater certainty than from those trials which are made by actually measuring the lengths of simple pendulum's; because a difference of one hundredth part of an inch, in the length of a pendulum, corresponds to 11 seconds in a day: And it being easy to observe how much a clock gains or loses in a day, even to a single second. It is certain, that by means of a clock, compared in the manner above-mentioned, we may distinguish a difference (in the lengths of isochronal pendulum's) of one thousandth part of an inch or less; whereas it will be scarce possible to measure their true lengths, without being liable to a greater error than that. Besides, by taking notice how much a clock gains or loses, upon the falling or rising of a thermometer, we can better allow for the different degrees of heat in this, than in the other method of making the experiment, by actual measurement; since it may not be easy to determine how much the measure itself, which we make use of, will be lengthened by different degrees of heat.

For these reasons Mr. Bradley reckons Mr. Campbell's experiment to be the most accurate of all that have hitherto been made, and propereft to determine the difference of the gravity of bodies in different latitudes; and therefore he subjoins a table he computed from it, that contains the difference of the length of a simple pendulum, swinging seconds at the equator, and at every fifth degree of latitude, together with the number of seconds that a clock would gain in a day, in those several latitudes, supposing it went true when under the equator; by means of which any one may readily compare other the like observations with his; and thereby discover whether the alteration of gravity in all places be uniform, and agreeable to the rule laid down by Sir Isaac Newton or not.

The Lat. of the place.	The difference of the length of the pendulum in parts of an English inch,	Seconds gained by a clock in 1 day.	The Lat. of the place.	The difference of the length of the pendulum in parts of an English inch,	Seconds gained by a clock in 1 day.
Deg.	Inch.	Seconds	Deg.	Inch.	Seconds
5	0. 0016	1. 7	50	0. 1212	134. 0
10	0. 0062	6. 9	55	0. 1386	153. 2
15	0. 0138	15. 3	60	0. 1549	171. 2
20	0. 0246	26. 7	65	0. 1696	187. 5
25	0. 0369	40. 8	70	0. 1824	201. 6
30	0. 0516	57. 1	75	0. 1927	213. 0
35	0. 0679	75. 1	80	0. 2003	221. 4
40	0. 0853	94. 3	85	0. 2050	226. 5
45	0. 1033	114. 1	90	0. 2065	228. 3

*Conjectures on the charming or fascinating Power of the Rattle-snake, grounded on credible Accounts, Experiments and Observations; by Sir Hans Sloane. Phil. Trans. N° 433. p. 321.*

**A**S to rattle-snakes, it is universally agreed on, that by keeping their eyes fixed on any small animal, as a squirrel, bird or the like, tho' sitting on the branch of a tree at a considerable height, it shall, by such stedfast or earnest looking thereon, be made to fall dead into their mouths.

Sir Hans had a rattle-snake given him, which had been sent alive in a box with some gravel from Virginia; it had liv'd three months without any sustenance and had in that time cast its outer coat or *exuviae*, which was found amongst the gravel.

Captain Hall, a very understanding and observant person, who had liv'd several years in Virginia, ventur'd to take the snake out of the box; notwithstanding that the poison from its bite is almost present death: For, he gave an instance of a person bitten, who was found dead at the return of a messenger going to the next house to fetch a remedy, tho' he was not gone above half an hour: Nay, so certain are the mortal effects of this poison, that sometimes the waiting till an iron can be heated, in order to burn the wound, is said to have prov'd fatal: He therefore thought the safest way was immediately to cut out the part where the wound was made:

For,

For, he had seen several, who carried these hollow scars about them, as marks of the narrow escape they had had, and they never felt any inconvenience afterwards.

Tho' providence hath produced a creature so terrible to other animals; yet it seems to have provided it with the rattle at its tail, that the noise thereof may give them warning to get out of its way.

An experiment was tried before several physicians in the garden belonging to the College in London: The Captain, by keeping the head fast with a forked stick, and making a noose, which he put about the tail of the snake, tied it fast to the end of another stick, with which he took the snake out and laid him upon the grass-plat. Then a dog being made to tread upon him, he bit the dog, who thereupon howl'd very bitterly, and went away some few yards from the snake: But in about a minute of time he grew paralytic in the hinder legs, as dogs do who have the *aorta descendens* tied: He died in less than three minutes, as is related by Mr. Ranby in an account of this experiment in Phil. Trans. N° 401. p. 377. and by Captain Hall N° 399. p. 309.

According to Sir Hans, the whole mystery of their enchanting or charming any creature, is chiefly this, namely, that when such animals as are their proper prey, as small quadrupeds, and birds, &c. are surprised by them, they bite them, and the poison allows them time to run a small way, as the dog in the above experiment did; or perhaps a bird to fly up into the next tree, where the snakes watch them with great earnestness, till they fall down, or are perfectly dead, when having lick'd them over with their spawl or spittle, they swallow them down, as the following accounts relate.

' Some people in England (says Colonel Beverly in his History of Virginia Edit. 2d. p. 260. Lond. 1722. 8vo.) are startled at the very name of the rattle-snake, and fancy every corner of that province so much pester'd with them, that a man goes in constant danger of his life, that walks abroad in the woods. But this is a gross mistake: For, first, this snake is very rarely seen, and when that happens, it never does the least mischief, unless you offer to disturb it, and thereby provoke it to bite in its own defence: And it never fails to give you fair warning by making a noise with its rattle, which may be heard at a convenient distance. For my own part, I have travell'd the country as much as

' any

any man; and yet before the first impression of this book, I had never seen a rattle-snake alive and at liberty in all my life. The bite of this viper, without some immediate application, is certain death: But remedies are so well known, that none of their servants are ignorant of them. I never knew any one kill'd by these or any other of their snakes. They have several other snakes, which are seen more frequently, and have very little or no hurt in them; such as the black-snakes, water-snakes and corn-snakes. The black viper-snake, and the copper-bellied snake, are said to be as venomous as the rattle snake; but they are as seldom seen. These three poisonous snakes bring forth their young alive; whereas the other three sorts lay eggs, which are afterwards hatch'd; and that is the distinction they make, esteeming those only to be venomous, which are viviparous. They have likewise the horn-snake, so call'd from a sharp horn it carries in its tail, with which it assaults any thing that offends it, with such force, that, as it is said, it will strike its tail into the but-end of a musket, from which it is not able to disengage itself.

All sorts of snakes will charm both birds and squirrels; and the Indians pretend to charm them. Several persons have seen squirrels run down a tree directly into a snake's mouth: They have likewise seen birds fluttering up and down, and chattering at these snakes, till at last they have dropt down before them.

In the latter end of May, 1715, stopping at an orchard, by the road side (being three of us in company) we were entertain'd with the whole process of a charm between a rattle-snake and a hare; the hare being better than half grown. It happened thus; One of the company, in his search for the best cherries, espied the hare sitting, and tho' he went close by her, she did not move; till he (not suspecting the occasion of her tameness) gave her a lash with his whip. This made her run about ten foot, and there sit down again. The Gentleman not finding the cherries ripe, immediately return'd the same way; and near the place where he struck the hare, he espied a rattle-snake. And still not suspecting the charm, he goes back about 20 yards to a hedge to get a stick to kill the snake; and at his return found the snake remov'd and coil'd in the same place, from whence he had mov'd the hare. This put him into the thoughts of looking for the hare again, and

' and he soon spied her about 10 foot off the snake, in the same place to which she had started when he whipt her. She was now lying down; but she would sometimes raise herself on her fore-feet, struggling as it were for life, or to get away, but could never raise her hinder parts from the ground; and then she would fall flat on her side again, panting vehemently. In this condition the hare and snake were when he call'd me; and tho' we all three came up within 15 foot of the snake, to have a full view of the whole, the snake took no notice at all of us, nor so much as gave a glance towards us. There we stood at least half an hour, the snake not altering a jot; but the hare often struggling and falling on its sides again, till at last the hare lay still for some time as dead. Then the snake mov'd out of his coil, and slid gently and smoothly on towards the hare, his colours at that instant being ten times more glorious and shining than at other times. As the snake mov'd along, the hare happened to fetch another struggle, upon which the snake made a stop, lying at his length, till the hare had lain quiet again for a short space; and then he advanc'd again, till he came up to the hinder parts of the hare, which in all this operation had been towards the snake. There he surveyed the hare all over, raising part of his body above it, then he turned off, and went to the head and nose; after that to the ears; took the ears in his mouth one after the other, working each apart in his mouth, as a man does a wafer to moisten it; then return'd to the nose again, and took the face into his mouth, straining and gathering his lips, sometimes by one side of his mouth, sometimes by the other. At the shoulders he was a long time puzzled, often haling and stretching the hare out at length, and straining forward first one side of his mouth, then the other; till at last he got the whole body into his throat. Then we went to him, and taking the twist-band off from my hat, I made a noose, and put it about its neck. This made him at length very furious: But having secured him, we put him into one end of a wallet, and carried him on horseback five miles to the house where we lodged that night. Next morning we killed him and took the hare out of his belly. The head of the hare began to be digested, and the hair to fall off, having lain about 18 hours in the snake's belly.

' In my youth I was a bear-hunting in the woods, above the  
' inhabitants ; and having strayed from my companions, I was  
' entertain'd upon my return with a relation of a pleasant ren-  
' countre between a dog and a rattle-snake, about a squirrel,  
' The snake had got the head and shoulders of the squirrel into  
' his mouth, which being something too large for his throat, it  
' took him up some time to moisten the furr of the squirrel  
' with his spawl, to make it slip down. The dog took this  
' advantage, seized the hinder parts of the squirrel, and tugged  
' with all his might. The snake on the other side would not let  
' go his hold for a long time ; till at last, fearing he might be  
' bruis'd by the dogs running away with him, he gave up his  
' prey to the dog. The dog eat the squirrel and felt no harm.

' Another curiosity concerning this viper, I will relate from  
' my own observation. A rattle-snake being taken in a noose,  
' I cut off the head, leaving about an inch of the neck with it:  
' This I laid upon the head of a tobacco hogshead, one *Stephen*  
' *Lankford*, a carpenter, being with me. Now these snakes  
' have but 2 teeth, by which they convey their poison, and  
' these are placed in the upper jaw, pretty forward in the mouth,  
' one on each side. These teeth are hollow and crooked like a  
' cock's spur : They are also loose or springing in the mouth,  
' and not fastened in the jaw-bone, as all the other teeth are.  
' The hollow has also a vent thro' by a small hole a little be-  
' low the point of the tooth. These 2 teeth are kept lyng  
' down along the jaw, or shut like a spring knife : They have  
' also over them a loose thin film or skin of a flesh colour, which  
' rises over them when they are rais'd. This skin does not  
' break by the rising of the tooth only, but keeps whole till the  
' bite is given, and then it is pierced by the tooth, by which  
' the poison is let out. The head being laid upon the hogs-  
' head, I took two little twigs or splinters of sticks ; and having  
' turned the head upon its crown, open'd the mouth, and lifted  
' up the fang or springing tooth on one side several times ; in  
' doing of which I at last broke the skin. The head gave a  
' sudden champ with its mouth, breaking from my sticks ; in  
' which I observed that the poison ran down in a lump like oil,  
' round the root of the tooth. Then I turned the other side of  
' the head, and resolv'd to be more careful to keep the mouth  
' open on the like occasion, and observe more narrowly the con-  
' sequence : For, it is to be observ'd, that tho' the heads of  
' snakes, terrapins (*a sort of tortoise*) and such like vermin be  
' cut off ; yet the body will not die in a long time after, the  
general

general saying is, not till the sun sets. After opening the mouth on the other side, and lifting up that fang also several times, he endeavour'd to give another bite or champ. But I kept his mouth open, and the tooth pierced the skin, and emitted a stream like that in blood-letting, and cast some drops upon the sleeve of the carpenter's shirt, who had no waist-coat on. I advis'd him to pull off his shirt, but he would not, and receiv'd no harm; and tho' nothing could then be seen of it upon the shirt; yet in washing there appear'd 5 green specks, which every washing appear'd plainer and plainer, and lasted as long as the shirt, which was about 3 years after. The head we afterwards threw down upon the ground; and a sow came and eat it before our faces, and receiv'd no harm. Now I believe, had this poison lighted upon any place of the carpenter's skin, that was scratch'd or hurt, it might have poison'd him. I take the poison to rest in a small bag or receptacle in the hollow at the root of these teeth; but I never had the opportunity afterwards to make a farther discovery of that.

As to the violent effects of this poison I was told by Colonel James Taylor, that being with others in the woods a surveying, they found a rattle-snake, and cut off his head, and about 3 inches of the body. Then with a green stick which he had in his hand, about a foot and a half long, the bark being newly peel'd off, he urged and provoked the head; till it bit the stick with fury several times. Upon this the Colonel observed small green streaks to rise up along the stick towards his hand. He threw the stick upon the ground, and in a quarter of an hour, the stick of its own accord split into several pieces, and fell asunder from end to end. This account I had from him again at the writing hereof.

F. La Bat likewise tells us (in his *nouveau voyage aux îles de l'Amerique* Tom. 4. p. 96, 196. Edit. Paris, 1722, 8°) that serpents, when they bite their prey, retire to avoid being hurt by them; and when dead, cover them with their spittle, extend their feet along their sides and tails, if quadrupeds, and swallow them.

*The Squilla aquæ dulcis; by Dr. Richardson. Phil. Trans.  
N° 433. p. 331.*

D R. Richardson observ'd what he does not remember to be taken notice of by any naturalist; namely, the great destruction made amongst the small fry of fish by the *squilla aquæ*

*aqua dulcis*, which abound in most standing waters. In a small breeding pond near his house, where he had formerly plenty of small carp and tench every year, but more latterly scarce any young fry to be met with, his gardener observed one of the *squille* with a carp in its mouth almost as big as itself; and he afterwards observed these insects hunting amongst the weeds, and vigorously pursuing the small fry. The Dr. order'd the gardener to catch some of these insects, and bring them home alive, with some of the smallest fish he could meet with. They were put together in a large basin of water; and the insects were so rapacious, that they fell upon the fish immediately, and destroy'd several in his sight; and before morning they devour'd all that were in the basin.

*A solar Eclipse observed at Witemberg a little before sun-set,  
May 2. 1733, O. S. by M. Weidler. Phil. Trans. N° 433.  
p. 332. Translated from the Latin.*

Phases of the immersion

	H.	S.	
May 2, 1733, O. S. The beginning of the eclipse at	—	—	6 36 5 p. m.
1 digit eclipsed	—	—	39 50
2 digits	—	—	45 5
3	—	—	48 50
4	—	—	52 50
5	—	—	58 5
6	—	—	7 2 50
7	—	—	7 50
8	—	—	10 50
9	—	—	15 50
10	—	—	19 50
11	—	—	29 20

The sun goes under thin clouds.

Phases of the emersion.

10 digits eclips'd	7	35	50
9	—	40	50
8	—	44	50
The sun sets at	—	46	5

M. Weidler makes the following remarks.

2. The

1. The circle (Fig. 1. Plate I.) represents the image of the sun, as it appear'd in the bottom of the helioseope.
2. The light of the sun, near the moon's disk, which M. Weidler had always observ'd, in other solar eclipses, as well near the horizon, as under a greater altitude, to have a strong undulatory motion, was quite still and calm in this.
3. The moon's disk, especially on its western part, in the phases observ'd a little before sun-set, appear'd to all the beholders to have a manifest asperity ; yet there were spaces, neither very broad nor deep, by which the tops of the lunar mountains were distinguished : And with a nicely divided scale he estimated the depth of one valley to be  $\frac{1}{200}$  part of the moon's diameter.
4. The last phases of the emersion were seen thro' thin clouds ; and yet the moon did not cover above 11 dig. of the sun's disk.
5. The setting of the sun's centre, for the horizon of Witemberg was found to be at  $7^{\text{h}}\ 39'\ 49''$  ; and consequently, by the refraction of the rays in the clouds in the horizon it was retarded 6 min. of time nearly.

*An Abstract of Meteorological Diaries; with Remarks thereon; by Dr. Derham. Phil. Trans. N° 433. p. 334.*

THE following meteorological observations were very carefully made in 1726 (some twice and some thrice every day) at Berlin, by the Society there; at Lund in Sweden by Conrad Quensel, Professor of the Mathematics in the Caroline Academy; at Bettina in Sudermanland, by Andr. Geringius, Pastor and Provost of the place; at Upsal by Eric Burman, Professor of Astronomy in the Gustavian Academy; at Bygdea in Westro-Borinia by Jacob. Burman, Pastor of the place; and at Pythea in the same province, by Olave Burman and Israel Stecksenius, students.

The most useful of the barometrical observations are exhibited in the following table, which readily shews the highest, lowest, and mean, heights of the quicksilver in every month, at the several places.

	JANUARY.			
	Berlin	Lun.	Bett.	Upsa.
High.	29.3	30.0 $\frac{1}{2}$	30.51	30.18
Mean	28.7 $\frac{1}{2}$	29.3 $\frac{1}{2}$	29.92	29.58
Low	28.0 $\frac{1}{4}$	28.5 $\frac{3}{4}$	29.26	28.98

FEB.

## MEMOIRS of the

## FEBRUARY.

	Berlin	Lun.	Bett.	Upsa.
High.	29.6	29.8 $\frac{3}{4}$	30.40	30. 2
Mean	28.6 $\frac{1}{4}$	29.1 $\frac{1}{2}$	29.74	29.53
Low.	27.6 $\frac{3}{4}$	28.4 $\frac{1}{4}$	29. 8	28.86

## MARCH.

	Berlin	Lun.	Bett.	Upsa.	Pithea
High.	29. 0 $\frac{3}{4}$	30.0 $\frac{1}{2}$	30.50	30.24	30.11
Mean	28. 5	29.4 $\frac{1}{2}$	29.79	29.28	29.35
Low.	27.10 $\frac{1}{2}$	28.8 $\frac{1}{2}$	29. 8	28.32	28.50

## APRIL.

	Berlin	Lun.	Bett.	Upsal	Pithea
High.	28.10	29.9 $\frac{1}{2}$	30.48	30.17	29.98
Mean	28. 5	29.5 $\frac{7}{8}$	29.86 $\frac{1}{2}$	29.66	29.27 $\frac{1}{2}$
Low.	28. 0 $\frac{1}{3}$	29.24 $\frac{1}{4}$	29.25	29.15	28.57

## MAY.

	Berlin	Lun.	Bett.	Upsa.	Pithea
High.	28. 9 $\frac{1}{4}$	30.0 $\frac{1}{2}$	30.40	30.16	30.11
Mean	28. 4 $\frac{1}{3}$	29.7 $\frac{3}{4}$	30.77 $\frac{1}{2}$	29.84	29.74 $\frac{1}{2}$
Low.	28.00 $\cdot \frac{1}{3}$	29.4 $\frac{1}{4}$	29.35	29.52	29.48

## JUNE.

	Berlin.	Lun.	Bett.	Upsal	Pithea
High.	28.7 $\frac{1}{2}$	29.9 $\frac{1}{2}$	30.20	30.00	29.98
Mean	27.9 $\frac{1}{4}$	29.4 $\frac{1}{2}$	29.67 $\frac{1}{2}$	29.62 $\frac{1}{2}$	29.56 $\frac{1}{4}$
Low.	27.0 $\frac{1}{2}$	28.9 $\frac{1}{2}$	29.15	29.25	29.15

## JULY.

	Berlin.	Lun.	Bett.	Upsa.	Pithea
High.	28.5 $\frac{4}{5}$	29.6	30. 5	29.88	29.56
Mean	28.2 $\frac{3}{4}$	29.2 $\frac{3}{4}$	29.70	29.54	29.37 $\frac{1}{2}$
Low.	28.0 $\frac{1}{4}$	28.9 $\frac{1}{2}$	29.35	29.20	29.19

## AUGUST.

	Berlin.	Lun.	Bett.	Upsal	Pithea
High.	28. 8	29.8 $\frac{3}{4}$	30.30	29.98	29.86
Mean	28. 3 $\frac{1}{4}$	29.3 $\frac{5}{8}$	29.65 $\frac{1}{2}$	29.48	29.28 $\frac{1}{2}$
Low.	27.11 $\frac{4}{5}$	28.8 $\frac{1}{2}$	29. 1	28.98	28.71

SEP.

## SEPTEMBER.

	Berlin	Lun.	Bettina	Upsal	Pithea
High.	28.6	29.7 $\frac{3}{4}$	30.28	30.00	29.80
Mean	28.1	29.1 $\frac{3}{8}$	29.57	29.29	29.20
Low.	27.8	28.5 $\frac{3}{4}$	28.87	28.58	28.60

## OCTOBER.

	Berlin	Lun.	Bettina	Upsal	Pithea
High.	28.10	30.1 $\frac{1}{2}$	30.55	30.25	29.90
Mean	28.3 $\frac{1}{2}$	29.1 $\frac{7}{8}$	29.57 $\frac{1}{2}$	29.28 $\frac{1}{2}$	29.05
Low.	27.9	28.2 $\frac{1}{4}$	28.60	28.32	28.20

## NOVEMBER.

	Berlin	Lun.	Bettina	Upsal	Pithea
High.	29.1	30.1 $\frac{1}{2}$	30.80	30.51	30.19
Mean	28.7	29.5 $\frac{1}{2}$	30.00	29.73	29.24
Low.	28.1 $\frac{1}{4}$	28.9 $\frac{1}{2}$	29.20	28.90	28.29

## DECEMBER.

	Berlin	Lun.	Bettina	Upsal	Pithea
High.	29.1 $\frac{1}{2}$	30.0 $\frac{1}{2}$	30.50	30. 7	29.80
Mean	28.4 $\frac{3}{4}$	29.5 $\frac{1}{2}$	29.65	28.8 $3\frac{1}{2}$	29. 0 $\frac{1}{2}$
Low.	27.8 $\frac{1}{4}$	28.4 $\frac{1}{4}$	28.80	28.60	28.21

Tho' this table may give a good view of the barometrical ranges at the several places in every month of the year 1726; yet Dr. *Derham* thinks it necessary to take notice of the great agreement between the ascents and descents of the mercury, sometimes at the very same time, and generally near it. If the mercury was remarkably high or low, it was so in all or most of the places: If stationary for 3 or 4, or more days, it was the same in all; only the alteration would begin or end, somewhat sooner or later, perhaps in one place than the other; and when there was any deviation from this rule, it was commonly most remarkable in the *Pithea* observations.

As to the thermometrical observations, the Dr. could give no account of them, by reason he did not understand the thermometers made use of, nor the freezing, temperate, or other points; only the *Upsal* thermometer (which was made by Mr. *Hawksbee*) must serve for all; in which the point of extreme heat is marked 5 degrees above 0, and so is graduated downwards to 45 degrees, which is the point of temperate, and 65 degrees,

## MEMOIRS of the

degrees, which is the point of freezing. The mean of all the degrees of every month at *Upsal M. Burman* bath noted, according to Dr. *Jurin's* directions in *Phil. Trans.* N° 379, which is, by adding the whole degrees of the month, and dividing by the number of days; which mean degrees Dr. *De ham* has inserted, as well as his own; which last are the mean between the highest and lowest degrees, as well of the thermometer as barometer.

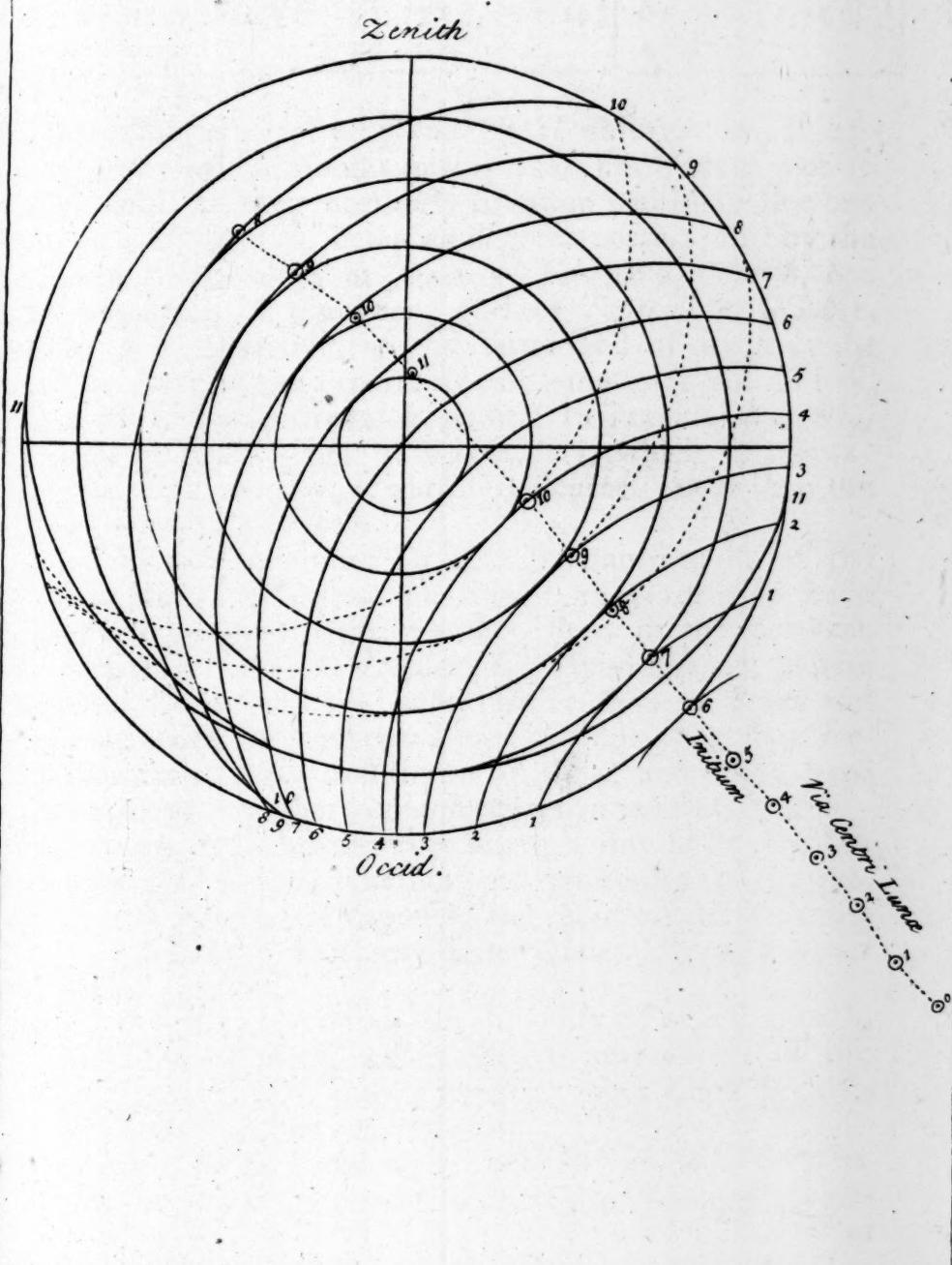
A table of the mean barometrical stations by Dr. *Jurin* way.

JANUARY.		FEBRUARY.		MARCH.	
Upsale	Pithea	Upsale	Pithea	Upsale	Pithea
29.76 $\frac{1}{3}$		29.47 $\frac{1}{4}$		29.51 $\frac{1}{2}$	29.28 $\frac{1}{8}$
APRIL.		MAY.		JUNE.	
Upsale	Pithea	Upsale	Pithea	Upsale	Pithea
29.76 $\frac{2}{3}$	29.49 $\frac{7}{12}$	29.91 $\frac{1}{3}$	29.82 $\frac{2}{3}$	29.59 $\frac{1}{3}$	29.49 $\frac{3}{5}$
JULY.		AUGUST.		SEPTEMBER.	
29.53 $\frac{1}{1}$	29.38 $\frac{2}{9}$	29.54 $\frac{1}{2}$	29.27 $\frac{1}{3}$	29.34 $\frac{2}{9}$	29.14 $\frac{1}{6}$
OCTOBER.		NOVEMBER.		DECEMBER.	
29.43 $\frac{1}{3}$	29.11 $\frac{1}{3}$	29.81 $\frac{1}{10}$	29.49 $\frac{2}{3}$	29.66 $\frac{2}{3}$	29.19 $\frac{2}{11}$

A thermometrical table of the highest, lowest, and mean stations at *Lunden* and *Upsal*; together with the mean station at *Upsal* according to Dr. *Jurin's* method.

JANUARY.			FEBRUARY.			MARCH.		
	Lun.	Upfa.	Lun.	Upfa.	Lun.	Upfa.		
High.	79	96.		85	83.7		111	82.0
Mean	58 $\frac{1}{8}$	74.8	81.2 $\frac{1}{3}$	65 $\frac{1}{2}$	74.3 $\frac{1}{2}$	74.1 $\frac{2}{3}$	84 $\frac{1}{2}$	67.5
Low.	38	67.7		56	65		58	52.4
APRIL.			MAY.			JUNE.		
High.	149	60. 9		187	47. 8		188	46. 7
Mean	116	56.56	53.7 $\frac{1}{2}$	156	32.54	33.0 $\frac{2}{3}$	158 $\frac{1}{2}$	30.55
Low.	83	43. 3		125	18. 1		129	15. 4

Fig. I.



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JULY.			AUGUST.			SEPTEMBER.		
Lun.	Upsa.	Upsale.	Lun.	Upsa.	Upsale.	Lun.	Upsa.	Upsale.
gh. 173	42. 4		156	52. 2		168	62.7	
ean. 146	32.54	33.7 $\frac{1}{3}$ •	134 $\frac{1}{2}$	41.60	43.5 $\frac{1}{3}$ •	133	50.4	43.5 $\frac{1}{3}$ •
ow. 119	23. 4		113	32. 8		98	38.1	
OCTOBER.			NOVEMBER.			DECEMBER.		
gh. 122	70.7		90	84.3		83	94. 8	
ean. 102 $\frac{1}{2}$	61.7	61.8 $\frac{2}{3}$ •	71	73.0	72.1 $\frac{1}{2}$ •	61	80.57	79.8 $\frac{1}{3}$ •
ow. 1 83	52.7	1	52	62.3		40	67. 7	

By this table, especially by the *Upsal* observations, it appears, that the colder months in this year 1726, were not so excessive cold, as their northerly situation would incline one to imagine; *Upsal* itself being 60 degrees north. But by the table, some of the days in *January*, *February*, *March*, &c. at the beginning of the year; and of *September*, *October*, *November* and *December*, at the latter end of it, may be observ'd to have had the thermometer sometimes not so low, or very little below the freezing point. In *January* and *December*, for instance, when it was at 67.7, which was lower than in the other months, it was not 3 degrees lower than the freezing point at 65 degrees.

But by the best judgment Dr. *Derham* could make of the thermometrical observations at *Berlin*, they seem to have had no less, if not more severe weather, than in the northern parts, particularly than at *Lunden*, *Upsal* and *Pithea*, where the weather seems to have been milder than at *Betna* and *Sygea*; at which two places, the Dr. finds they had frequent showers of rain and storms of snow, and more hard weather than at the other *Swedish* places, or at *Berlin*.

What the cause of this different warmth should be, the Dr. leaves others to judge; whether the proximity of the sea, or the warmth of mineral vapours, and their woods skreening off the cold winds; to which two latter *Olaus Magnus* ascribes great deal.

But for the better judging of the state of every month, take the following view, which the curious author of the *Betna* observations hath given; together with some remarks of the Dr's own from the other places.

In *January* he says, the winter cold (which was very intense from the 23 of *December* to the 15 of *January*) began

to abate, to the disadvantage of the roads and travelling. In February the winter weather continued all the month, to the middle of March, with some snow, and frost enough to benefit the roads and travelling. March he says began with snow, stormy and bitter cold; but towards the latter end, the weather was milder, and more seasonable for agriculture, just begun. On the 14. and 17. there was an *aurora borealis*

On the 17. and 22. of March there were likewise signs of *auroræ boreales* at Berlin; as also on the 23. of February.

At Upsal there was also a *lumen boreale* on the 27. of February, the 3, 15, and 16 of March.

In April; Betna is said to have a seasonable seed-time, and that the autumnal corn, which had escap'd the worm (a calamity common in those parts as in England) began now to flourish.

At Lunden they had *parhelia* on the 28. and 29. of April.

At Upminster we had the *aurora borealis*, or streaming, on the 12. of April in the evening.

In May the observer at Betna takes notice, that by the continual and pernicious heat of the sun in this month, the corn was burnt up in such manner, as to be a sad presage of an ensuing scarcity and dearth of provisions.

And likewise at Upsal and Berlin they mention great drought and excessive heat of the sun. But in some parts of the month, the air at Berlin is said to have been coldish. In June the violent heats were abated, and the season was more moist and rainy. The corn being too soon ripe caus'd their harvest to fall out at a very unusual season.

At Lunden and Berlin it was cold several days and irksome.

July was a rainy month at Berlin, and in most of the Swedish places; at Pithea the least. At Betna it was very unwelcome to the harvest people. There was also much thunder and lightning in most of the places, chiefly at Upsal.

In August the Dr. finds a greater agreement between the winds than in the other months; they, in most of the places, blowing from some of the points between the W. and S. At Berlin and Upsal there was a deal of rain; at Pithea thunder, and at Berna, the beginning of the month, being mild and fair, is said to be a good seed-time; but it is remarked that for want of rain the seed did not come up well.

September was a very rainy month in all the Swedish places; very cloudy, and some misty and snowy at *Pithea*; but at *Berlin* better weather. At *Lunden* there was a parhelion on the 11th of Sept.

In October the Swedish places had several auroræ boreales. At *Lunden*, on the 8, 12 and 24. At *Betna*, on the 8, 10, 12, 13, 15, 22 and 26. At *Upsal*, on the 3, 6, and especially the 8. And at *Upminster*, the same evening of October 8, a very remarkable whitish list, or girdle, went cross the heavens, from west by south, to east by north, about half a degree broad; which continued but a little while, and then the whole hemisphere was cover'd with streaming vapours, emitting lances every where that pointed towards the zenith, where they formed a canopy, sometimes reddish, sometimes darker, and sometimes blazing, as if set on fire, and emitting lances every way, so as to make an appearance like the star which the Knights of the Garter wear. This canopy mov'd sometimes some degrees eastward, and then would return back again near the zenith. When the vapours and lances shone out most, the Dr. observ'd a strange commotion and working in them, as if some large body was behind them and disturbed them.

The weather in this month was rain and hoar-frost in the Swedish places, with a deal of snow at *Pithea* and *Bygdea*; a parhelion at *Lunden* Oct. 14: And the *Betna* observer saith, that the plenty of rain this month caus'd the corn to thrive much; and he reckons the 31st of this month to be then the first winter day with them; it being frosty, and abundance of snow. At *Berlin* it seems to have been a dark and cloudy month, with irksome cold towards the latter end.

At *Lunden* there were auroræ boreales on the 2, 7 and 8 of November; at *Betna* the 2; at *Lunden* and *Upsal*, it was cloudy, foggy, frost and snow; at *Bygdea*, *Pithea* and *Berlin*, fairer with frost and severe cold. At *Betna* the cold was very intense; the heavens very cloudy and misty.

In December, there were auroræ boreales at *Lunden* on the 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 14, 15, 16 and 22 days; and at *Upsal* on the 5 and 6; and at *Berlin* there were signals of the auroræ boreales on the 7 and 12; at *Lunden* frost and snow, cloudy and fogs; at *Upsal* some cloudy and foggy, and sometimes a pretty deal of fair; at *Berlin* much frost, cold, and a great storm of wind on the 23; at *Pithea* frequent snow, and some

fair, some cloudy. *Betna* had moderately snow, but twice more intense cold, to the great benefit of the roads and travelling.

For the better understanding the preceeding observations, it is to be observ'd, that the *Lunden* barometrical observations were made with a barometer, graduated according to *English* measure into inches, and the Dr. supposes, decimal parts of inches: But the thermometer he understood not: The *Betna* barometer is also graduated in the same manner into *English* inches and centesimal. The *Upsal* barometer and thermometer were both made by Mr. *Hauksbee*, and consequently are according to *English* measure, the barometer having inches and centesimal parts, the thermometer as before described. The *Bygdea* observations had none thermometrical or barometrical, only a verbal account of the weather, and now and then of the winds. The *Pithea* observations had none thermometrical; and those of the barometer seem to be in inches and centesimal parts.

*Of Ambergrease; by Dr. Neuman. Phil. Trans. N° 433.  
P. 344. Translated from the Latin.*

**T**WO things in physick Dr. *Neuman* has often been justly and very much surprised at; 1. That we have no certain accounts of some species, which have for a long time; nay, some of them for several ages, been used in pharmacy; so that in *Europe* alone, there is yearly consumed several hundred weight of them; especially of the various exotic vegetables, as myrrh, gum *animæ*, *carannæ*, *fanguis draconis*, *femen cincæ*; and several other species in the other kingdoms; and yet as to their natural history, native soil, origin and manner of production, we are entirely at a loss; and our accounts of some of them are doubtful, various, contradictory, and generally by hearsay only.

2. That few pharmaceutic subjects, tho' in use for so many ages back, are hitherto but little known, as to their true composition and constituent parts, and their peculiar and real nature; and that we are ignorant of the demonstrable separable parts they may contain, not only the visible, but chiefly the parts perceptible by the smell and taste, and which are really active: And that we are at a loss in what separable substance, and part of the natural compound (tho call'd a simple by the vulgar) the essential characteristic which discovers itself by its specific smell, taste and virtue does eminently reside: Whereas the greatest part of ou-

account

accounts is taken from travellers, merchants, druggists and politicians, who are generally unskilled in medicine and natural history, and from jesuits, monks, soldiers, sailors, fishermen, miners, gardeners, nay even some physicians, who are not sufficiently grounded in the experience of true chemistry and demonstrative physic: And these accounts have been transcribed, and credited; and continue to be so still; yet upon an impartial and unprejudiced examination; what has hitherto been so laid, written and credited, is found to be nothing less than the real truth, but rather the contrary. The blunders in physic as to these two circumstances are scarce to be imagined, could not several instances be adduced to that purpose: The Dr. had for some years proposed to himself, and at the same time taken no small pains to examine carefully the common species; and the result was, that he discover'd many truths, and exposed several false accounts and chimerical notions.

He indeed owns, that he met with insurmountable obstacles in a great many things relating to the first circumstance, namely the natural history; partly, as he himself had not been in the native country of these exotic animals and vegetables; partly as the accounts of them in books are merely equivocal, uncertain and entirely disagreeing with their preparations; and partly likewise because in many, especially, most of the mineral species, it is impossible to be present at their generation and manner of production, or so visibly observe it, as we may probably to greater advantage in vegetables and animals; on which account, he so much the more seriously applied himself to the second circumstance, namely the investigation of the composition of natural substances, that he might, at least have a thorough knowledge, as to their natural composition, of the things commonly made use of in the shops, whether from the *East* or *West Indies*, *Europe* or *Africa*; and whether they be vegetables, animals or minerals, or of whatever denomination they commonly are, before they are made into medicines or other preparations for common use: In this disquisition he especially made use of a nice chemical analysis, and that the rather, as he found the methods by microscopes, geometrical figures, and by pneumatical, hydrostatical and the other usual ways of trial, not only manifestly insufficient, but often fallacious; nay, of little service in physico-chemical or demonstrative disquisitions.

The subject of the Dr's present disquisition is amber-grease, commonly us'd in the shops; it has been much and long di-

disputed, what it properly is: And by some accounts of it latterly from *America*, it should seem it was certainly discover'd, what it really is; but as these accounts do not agree with the chemical analysis he made of this matter, he could not receive them as decisive; and he was therefore induced to write the following account, in order to excite the enquirers into nature, both in *America* and elsewhere, to gain farther certainty in this affair.

Not to enter into an etymological disquisition of the term *ambra*; he thinks it sufficient, that it is now commonly used, and its meaning universally understood: And not to mention the several sorts of amber, it is observable what *Ulysses Aldrovandus* affirms in his *Museum Metallicum lib. 3. cap. 21.* p. 436; that under the general term *ambra* is understood the whole genus of amber; and that at this day ambergrease is call'd by some *succinum orientale*, as for some time back, the common amber has usually been call'd *succinum occidentale*, to distinguish it from the oriental: But it is a thing well known, that among several *European* nations, the term *ambra* without any adjunct, denotes common amber; from which observation he is induced to think that the ancient *Prussians*, who used the term *ambra* to denote both common amber and ambergrease, had at that time a true idea of ambergrease, as to its nature or constituent parts.

He cannot but own, that considering the many various and different opinions that formerly have been, and still are entertain'd about ambergrease, that produce of the sea, he seems as if he would plunge into a wide ocean of opinions, and there from so many uncertain accounts and descriptions draw a certain conclusion: For, there are doubtless very few things in nature, to which so many different ways of formation have been ascribed as to this subject; and not content with the three kingdoms, they have devised two more, in which they have classed it, as the aerial and marine; tho' the whole sea with all its contents be reducible to any of the three common kingdoms of nature, the mineral, vegetable or animal.

*Oelven* is the only one, as far as the Dr. knew, who classed ambergrease in the aerial kingdom, taking it for a meteor, or something generated in the air; and this manifestly absurd opinion he endeavours to support by several reasons, which notwithstanding are of no great weight; besides, that it is sufficiently confuted from the weight of ambergrease, which sometimes amounts to 100 pounds, and from its substance, and the composition of its essential parts.

Many

Many have recourse to the animal kingdom, yet without entirely quitting the aerial : for, they hold that ambergrise derives its origin from such creatures as fly in the air, tho' this again be with a remarkable difference, which divides them into two classes ; the first supposes ambergrise to be the dung of birds, and they are led into this opinion from the beaks, claws, and other parts of these creatures being found therein : nay, they describe the very bird, affirming it to be as big as a goole, with beautiful and spotted plumes, and in the Maldivian language call'd *Anacangripasqui*, and in that of Madagascar, *Aschibobuck*. *Ferdinandus Lopez de Castagneda*, lib. 4. cap. 35. and others are of opinion, that this bird eats several fragrant herbs, and deposits its precious dung upon the rocks in and about the sea ; which dung after being digested and concocted by the sun in the day time, and depurated by the moon in the night, and consequently ripened, prepared, and perfected by both luminaries into ambergrise ; and afterwards in stormy weather wash'd off by the waves, is carried floating into the sea ; and at length, either driven ashore, such as it was wash'd from the rocks, or swallowed by whales ; who, being unable to digest it, do generally throw it up again in a short time.

The other opinion on ambergrise is, that it is produced by bees, and that it is their wax ; of this opinion chiefly is *Denis, Rec. des Mem. & Conferen. sur les Arts & les Sciences 1672. M. Aug. p. 222. It. Mediseri Cosmograph. Tom. I. p. 101. It. Ejus descriptio insulae Madagascar, cap. 6. p. 43. It. Odo-ardus Barbosa. It. Andr. Tevet. and Franc. Belloforestus. Monconys in Itinerar. suo Edit. Paris. en suite de la 2. partie, p. 143. It. Edit. Londinens. p. 71. Lemery, traité univers. des drogues simples. And. Pomet, hist. generale des drogues, P. 2. lib. 1. p. 57.* if not the greatest part of the French nation : Both opinions agree in most particulars, as that the ambergrise is wash'd off from the rocks, that it is digested and concocted by the sun, &c. and that they only differ in that the one specifies bees, the other birds ; the one bees-wax, the other the excrements of birds : yet both suppose them winged animals : The sum of the latter opinion is, that there is a certain kind of bees in those places, where ambergrise is usually found ; that these bees make their hives upon the rocks and about the sea-shore, (but others propose the matter more subtilly, by saying, that the bees do not make their hives upon, but below the rocks, namely, in their caverns from whence the waves of the sea wash them off in the same manner as they did the excrements of the birds ; and they are afterwards digested,

## M E M O I R S of the

gested, attenuated, toasted and alter'd in such a manner by the continual agitation of the waves, the accession of the salt water, and the co-operation of the sun, as at length to become ambergrease, and under this form thrown out upon the shore: The sticklers for this opinion endeavour to establish it farther from that white, tenacious and viscous substance, that is usually precipitated from the essence of ambergrease, and which they take to be something waxy.

That both these opinions are false is plain from the following circumstances. 1. A sufficient quantity of ambergrease is found in these places, where there are neither birds nor bees. 2. And even where there are few or no rocks. And 3. where these rocks have neither excrements of birds, nor bees-wax.

In particular; that the opinion on the excrements of birds is false and erroneous, does moreover appear from the following particulars. 1. The parts of birds, sometimes found in ambergrease, are not the bills or claws of geese, but only small and fine particles. 2. It does not appear how the bills, claws, &c. of other birds should pass into the body, or excrement of these. 3. The eating of fragrant herbs does by no means produce a fragrant dung. 4. It is contrary to universal experience, that the sun should by digestion give a fragrant smell to such excrements; on the contrary, it rather causes and promotes putrefaction; by which means there is produced not the fragrant smell of ambergrease, but a nauseous ungrateful stench; especially, if there is a great collection of soft excrements, as there is often large and viscid masses of amber; or even the sun extracts the fragrant particles, when smaller masses of dry excrement, such as that of several birds, are exposed to its beams; so as at length to appear quite dry, like a lean earth. 5. This dung of birds in its greatest part, if not dissolved by the waves, would at least be divided into minuter parts, tho' never so strongly irradiated by the sun and moon. 6. We are not to suppose that the waves would wait, till the excrements were sufficiently concocted and digested by the sun and moon, but wash away indiscriminately both the fresh and digested excrements; and the former would the more readily be dissolved and dissipated in the water; but then whence could we have these large, uniform solid pieces of amber, as sometimes to weigh a quarter of a hundred, half a hundred, nay, a whole hundred weight. 7. Such as fish for amber, know of no such birds and their excrements. 8. Should we conclude from the bones, bills and claws of birds, found in ambergrease, that it is their dung, we might equally infer, that

that it is the excrement of shell-fish and other fishes ; since many parts of these are found therein. 9. The substance and natural composition of amber-grease, nay, in fine, its chymical analysis contradict this opinion ; since it yields no signs of excrements.

And this may also serve to confute the other opinion about bees-wax : for 1. No such kind of bees and bee-hives have been mentioned by any one, either in *Asia* or *America*, excepting *Denis* and *Monconys*, and such as take their relations on trust. 2. Supposing never so many bee-hives in the rocks near the sea, every one knows that honey is apt to dissolve or gradually run in water, even tho' it stood immoveable and soaking therein ; but much more so should it be stirred and agitated, as must be the case in a stormy sea. 3. Consequently this honey could by no means become more solid, firm, and compact, much less be collected into that large uniform mass like amber-grease. 4. The honey thus dissolved and washed away, we should have nothing left but empty honey-combs. But where do we ever find parts of such figure in amber-grease.

*Borelli*, it is true, *Observat. Med. Phys. Cent. IV. Observat. 66.* rejoins, that these honey-combs are afterwards fill'd with several things from the sea, and so become smooth and firm : But this is a giving up the origin he contends for, *viz.* That amber-grease is derived from bees only, since the honey-combs could not be filled with any wax from the sea, nor fortuitously with amber-grease ; but if we are to suppose them filled with any matters, which yet remains to be proved, they must be of different natures, according as this or the other thing happens to lodge therein : And must all these different substances be insensibly converted into true amber-grease ? Strange notions indeed. 5. But should any one object, that the wax is collected into one mass by the heat of the sun, the answer is : This does not appear from experience, be the honey-combs never so much exposed to the sun. And supposing the wax thus collected into a mass, yet it would have a uniform appearance, and remain of that appearance, which does not agree with amber-grease in its variety, appearance, and relation. 6. Wax never of itself takes fire, before it is melted ; but this amber-grease does. 7. Wax and honey have and retain their specific smell, which does not at all agree with that of amber-grease. 8. Chemistry alone evinces, that in examining amber-grease, it gives no signs of honey or any waxy substance ; nor can M. *Lemery* himself, *in loc. citat.* & *in ejus curju Chymie,*

prove that white and viscous matter which precipitates in the essence of ambergrease, and on which he principally builds, provided he examine it more accurately, to be a waxy matter. Dr. Kæmpfer in his *Amænitat. exotic.* p. 632, 633, 634, who himself was in India, plainly contradicts these authors; especially if they add this gross circumstance, namely, that there has been ambergrease found with crude honey in it: For, says he, ' All the modern French authors are mistaken, who follow Denis in this matter.'

To come now down to the vegetable kingdom: *Sylvaticus in Pandect.* affirms that ambergrease is a gum; but this opinion is shortly confuted by only considering its composition and constituent parts; it neither shews itself a gum-rosin, some part of which at least suffers a solution in water; nor much less a pure gum, which should dissolve entirely in water: But the contrary rather plainly appears in ambergrease; consequently it is no ways gummy.

Others hold ambergrease for a rosin, *Alexand. Geraldin. in Itinerar. suo ad Pontif. Leo. X. ex Libavio lib. IV. Singular. cap. 2. in Scholiis p. 320 a Dno. Boyle, Vide Phil. Trans. No. 97. p. 6113 and seq.* or for a balsamo-refinous matter of certain unknown trees near the shore, from which it trickles and runs down into the sea; where floating about, it is saturated with salt-water, and at the same time digested by the sun, and at length concocted into true ambergrease. But this opinion favours much of the fable: Because, 1. Such trees should be planted very near the sea, if the rosin must trickle down into it: 2. They must strike their roots very deep, lest from their nearness to the sea, they should be undermin'd, or quite overturn'd and wash'd away by the continual beating of the waves upon them. 3. If each trickling drop or little mass should fall into the sea, and be immediately surrounded by the water, their union into large lumps, such as ambergrease is found in, would become very difficult, if not impossible: and it is trifling to call in the assistance of the salt-water, the digestion and concoction of the sun in that troubled and cold element, the sea. 4. Sailors, and such as fish for ambergrease, whether natives or strangers, in the places where it is found, know nothing of these trees; as the celebrated *Geo. Eberhard Rumpffius* has also abundantly shewn. *Valentini Ost-Indische Sendschreiben sub N° XI. p. 56.* 5. In fine, its not mixing with express'd oils, and several other things manifestly shews that it is no vegetable rosin.

Averboes, in *Colliget. cap. 56.* affirms, that ambergrease is a species of camphire; but as he did not understand what camphire was; and as they greatly differ in volatility, solubility, colour, smell, and in several other properties, they must be as opposite as light and darkness.

Others on the contrary hold ambergrease for the produce of a certain fruit, (*Nic. Monard. de simplicibus Medicam. Edit. Plantin. Antv. p. 13.*) which the whales are fond of and swallow down, and from which there is generated in their bodies a perfect ambergrease; but this chimera deserves no answer.

*Julius Cæsar Scaliger* and *Serapius* (*Justi Fidi Klobii ambræ hist. p. 18.*) took ambergrease for a species of mushroom growing at the bottom of the sea, from which at length loosen'd, it floated on the surface, and was thrown out on the shore; but this opinion refutes itself; because, there is no mushroom without some distinguishing characteristic form; a circumstance that ill agrees with ambergrease.

*Libavius lib. 4. singularium cap. 1.* and *Weckerus in speciali lib. sect 2. p. 79.* It. *Sylvaticus in Pandect.* take ambergrease for the froth of the sea: But the following circumstance alone is sufficient confutation; namely, that in those places, where the sea foams most violently, or where its froth is in greatest plenty, there no ambergrease at all is found; which, were their hypothesis true, should be most plentiful there.

*Hieronymus Cardanus, de subtilitat. p. 284.* takes amber for *sperma ceti*: But how widely they differ is sufficiently evident to every one.

*Eichstadius, in lib. de confect. alkermes cap. 12.* and *Fragosus in lib. de medicam. ex Indiâ in Europ. delatis cap. de ambaro p. 89.* affirm that ambergrease is the liver of some fish: But every body knows, that the liver has its *capsula* or *parenchyma*, and consists of filaments of veins and arteries, which are by no means found in ambergrease; not to mention that what is got by distillation from a liver is quite different from what ambergrease yields.

Most who are sticklers for the marine kingdom, as it is called, were of opinion, that ambergrease is produced from fishes; yet these again run into various opinions, reducible to three general classes, which afterwards subdivide into several smaller branches.

To give some idea of this matter. 1. Some affirm that ambergrease is manifestly generated in fishes. 2. Others with more reason, that fishes swallow it floating on the sea.

In fine, those of the third class determine nothing on either side, and only affirm, that ambergrise is found in fishes; but whether generated in, or only swallowed by them, they mention not. From these three principal opinions have afterwards arose several subdivisions, as to the fishes, the swallowing and the production of ambergrise; some affirming, that it is found in the larger fishes only; but others, in the smaller too; some, that it is found in all sorts of whales; others on the contrary, in a certain species of them; tho' these again, differ as to the denomination of this species. They likewise differ as to the swallowing of it: For, some affirm that it is greedily swallowed by all sorts of fishes; but others, by one species only; some, that fishes die of it; but others, that it does them no hurt; some, that it is soon thrown up again, after being swallowed; others that it is thrown out with the *fæces*: And others further contend that it is likewise devoured by other animals. And thus in like manner there are no less different opinions as to its production; both as to the manner and place where; and whether it be an excrement, or recrement, &c.

The Dr. only touches upon the chief of these different opinions, thinking it both needless and of little use to consider each in order.

The celebrated *Rumpfius in loc. citat. Valentini sub N° 8.* p. 50. in his letter from the island of *Amboina* to M. *Ten Rhyne*, and which is verified by *Gabriel Nakke* and others, says expressly, that not only the larger whales, but likewise smaller fishes and even birds and boars, and some likewise mention foxes, do very greedily swallow proportionable pieces of ambergrise, where they can come at it, which they afterwards throw up again: and hence he says it is, that there have been such various opinions about ambergrise; some ascribing its production to whales, and others to hogs; tho' it is only fortuitously found in them, as having been swallowed by them.

Of such as hold, that ambergrise is found only in one sort of fish, and in a certain species of whales; some who call this fish *azel* (*Gesner de aquatil. Et quidem de cetis diversis lib. 4. p. 204.*) affirm, that it very greedily swallows it, but soon after dying of it, it is carefully sought for by the fishermen. Others call this fish *Mokos* (*Kæmpferi Amænitat. exotic. fascicul. 3. p. 635.*) and relate that it is upwards of three or four fathoms in length; that it lives in the *East-Indies*, and is taken

aken about Japan. Others, as M. *Andr. Cleyer*, who liv'd a long time in the *East Indies*, call this fish *cetum ambrophagum*, or the ambrivorous whale; and the said M. *Cleyer* sent M. *Mentzelius* a draught of it; which, together with M. *Cleyer's* account, was publish'd *Ann. VIII. Dec. 2.* of the observations of the Academy *Nature & Curiosorum*. Others affirm, that it is from a whale of the *Lamia* kind, *Valentini Ost-indische Sendfbreiben p. 50.* and others again, as Mr. *Dudley*, imagine, that amber-grease is solely produced from the *sperma ceti* whale.

Many who espouse neither side, affirm, that amber-grease is generally found in all sorts of fishes, and not in any one particular sort; nor do they decide the controversy, whether it be swallowed by, or generated in them; only in this they differ, that they do not assign for it one and the same place in the fish: For, some, and that the greatest number affirm, that it is contained in the whale's stomach; others, in the intestines; whence it is that some of these affirm, that the whales throw up the amber; but others, that they discharge it with the *fæces*: All these opinions, however, come to the same thing, and tacitly agree; viz. that amber-grease is not generated in, but rather swallowed by fishes: Since it is self-evident, that whether a thing be discharged by the mouth or *anus*, it must needs previously have been in the stomach; and what is discharged at the mouth, does certainly come from the stomach: If, therefore, the amber-grease in the stomach be not thrown up, but retain'd, then it may naturally pass farther into the intestines, and at length be quite discharged: And it causes no real difference whether it be found in the stomach or intestines; or, whether it be discharged upwards or downwards: It is a thing well known, that naturally there is nothing in the stomach but liquid juices; on the contrary, every thing else, especially the solid and compact substances must necessarily enter by the mouth, and so be swallowed down: If amber-grease therefore be really found in the stomach or intestines of a whale, it is unreasonable to imagine, that it was naturally produced there: Is it not rather more agreeable to nature, that this substance be by no means generated in this animal, but originally existing without it, and afterwards swallowed as food? Since many credible authors, tho' they differ, one in affirming that it is thrown up by whales; another, that it is discharg'd by the *anus*; a third, that it is found in the stomach; and a fourth

fourth, in the intestines ; yet they agree in this circumstance, a certain and undoubted truth, that ambergrise is swallow'd by fishes, and by no means generated in them.

The aforesaid circumstances however, as that ambergris has been discharged by whales both upwards and downwards, and that some of it has been found in the stomach and intestines, have betrayed several into the mistake, especially, the inhabitants of *Madagascar*, as also many fishermen and sailors, that ambergrise is nothing other than the excrement of the creature. The *Japonese* in their own language call that found in fishes, or discharged by them, *Kufura no fuu* (*Kämpf.* in loc. citat. p. 635.) which is said to denote the dung of whales.

To affirm that ambergris is the excrement or dung of whales because discharged by them, seems not conclusive ; as is manifest from the following instance : Running mercury, or pills of *regulus* of antimony, call'd the perpetual pills, are successively taken and discharged by 10, 20 or more men ; one discharges them immediately ; a second retains them a longer time, and a third probably dies with them ; as the Dr. observed in giving mercury in the *Iliac* passion : Now if both the mercury and pills were either discharged or found in the body, a pure mercury and pure *regulus* of antimony, no one therefore would take them for any animal matter, or call them an animal excrement. The same thing also holds of the deglutition and subsequent ejection of ambergris. It is here sufficient to observe, that ambergris is a foreign body, floating upon the sea, which fishes do greedily swallow down, as a tidbit ; in the manner as mushrooms, truffles, &c. are swallowed by men, but discharged again indigested : That ambergris is something foreign to fishes and indigestible, appears from several relations. The above mentioned fish, *azel*, is expressly said to be fond of ambergris and to die of it shortly after ; but to insist only on what is generally related ; fishes discharge the ambergris, they have swallowed down, either at the mouth or *anus* ; and it is an undoubted truth, that it is very rare to find any ambergris in the stomach or intestines of fishes. *Monardes* somewhere relates that in his time in the *Canary Islands*, 100 lb. weight of ambergris was found in the intestines of a whale ; and that from that time a great number of whales, small and great, were killed, but no ambergris found in them. To this the Dr. adds, that in several hundreds of whales there is no ambergris, and that what is sometimes found in them, was either swallowed a little before, or casually retained there thro' its compacter bulk.

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some other impediment, if not disease, whereby it was incapable of passing the intestines and being discharged.

It therefore remains an undoubted truth that ambergris is swallowed by several sorts of fishes, but in particular, by whales; that it is afterwards discharged either by the mouth or *anus*; or sometimes also retained in their bodies, and after death found either in the stomach or intestines; as all these circumstances have for a long time back been unanimously verified by several persons of undoubted credit: But we are not thence to conclude, that ambergris is produced in the stomach or intestines of these fishes; or because it has for some time been retained in their bodies, that therefore it is some animal matter, preferable to the animal kingdom.

The last opinion, reducible to this head, makes ambergris an animal recrement, and that of the whale kind; or, a matter, produced in the whale, as something peculiar to it; in the same manner as castor, musk, civet, bezoar, &c. in other animals.

*A Continuation of the Account of Ambergris; by the same.  
Phil. Trans. N° 434. p. 371. Translated from the Latin.*

In *Phil. Trans.* N° 385. and 387. are published two particular accounts of ambergris, transmitted to the Royal Society from America; the one by Mr. *Boylston*, and the other by Mr. *Dudley*: Dr. *Neuman* here only gives a summary of both these accounts.

1. Ambergris, according to Mr. *Dudley* is found only in the *sperma ceti* whale.

2. It consists of balls or globular bodies, of various sizes, from about 3 to 12 inches diameter, each ball weighing from  $\frac{1}{2}$  lb. to 22 lb.

3. These balls lie loose, in a large oval bag or bladder, 3 or 4 foot long, and 2 or 3 feet deep and wide, and almost in the form of an ox's bladder, only the extremities more acute, and resembling a black-smith's long pair of bellows.

With 4. A spout running into, and thro' the length of the *penis*. Besides

5. A duct or canal, opening into the other end of the bag; and

6. Proceeding from the region of the kidneys.

7. This bag lies just over the *testes*, which are above a foot long, and is placed lengthwise at the root of the *penis*, about 4 or 5 foot below the navel, and 3 or 4 foot above the *anus*.

8. This

8. This bag is almost full of a deep orange-colour'd liquor not quite so thick as oil, and smelling strong, or rather stronger of the same scent with the balls of ambergris, which float and swim loose therein.

9. The inside of the bag is very deeply tinged of the same colour as the liquor, which may also be found in the canal of the *penis*.

10. The balls seem to be pretty hard, while the whale is alive, since there are frequently found, upon opening the bag,

11. Large concave shells of the same substance and consistence with the balls themselves, that have scaled off from them.

12. And the balls themselves seem to consist entirely of such distinct coats, inclosing one another, like the coats of an onion.

13. The number of balls never exceeds 4 in a bag, according to Mr. Atkins; who affirms that in a bag, where he found one, that weighed 21 pounds, the largest he ever saw, there was no other.

14. The whale-men observe, that only the old, well grown and male whales, contain ambergris: Yet at the same time Mr. Atkins relates,

15. That he never saw, nor certainly heard of a *sperma ceti* female, taken in his life, the cows of that species being much more timorous than the males, and almost impossible to come at, unless when haply found a-sleep, or detain'd by their calves. This is certain, the boats can never come near them, when they are awake, being very shy and fearful: Besides, Mr. Atkins affirms,

16. That to one *sperma ceti* whale that has any of these balls, there are two, that have nothing of the abovemention'd deep orange-colour'd liquor in their bags; and in fine,

17. Mr. Dudley in the very beginning of his account, boasts, that after so long an uncertainty about ambergris, he at length discovered this secret of nature to be no other than an animal production, generated in the body of the *sperma ceti* whale, in the same manner as musk, &c. in other animals. And about the end of his account he says, I hope the Royal Society will ascribe to me the honour of the discovery, or at least that of the ascertaining the origin and nature of ambergris: Yet,

18. A little before he owns, that he dares not pretend to give his own opinion upon the point, but contents himself with relating matter of fact.

19. The

19. The greatest part of which account he had from Mr. Atkins, who used the whale-fishery for 10 or 12 years together, and from some other whalemen.

The sum of Mr. Boylston's account, consists of the following particulars.

That ambergris is found in no other than the *sperma ceti* male whale; and in one about 20 pounds, more or less, of that drug. That it is scarcely found in one of a hundred of them. That it is contained in a *cystis* or bag. That they have sometimes found this bag empty, and yet entire. That this bag is no where to be found but near the genitals of the fish. That the ambergris, when first taken out, is moist, and of an exceeding strong and offensive smell. But whether ambergris be naturally or accidentally produced in this fish; he leaves it to the learned to determine, &c. in fine that he had his account, only from the fishermen or whale-men.

From all which, it appears; 1. That the 2 accounts above-mention'd, agree in some respects; and 2. Differ in others; yet consistently with the principal question.

Both accounts agree, 1. That ambergris is found in the *sperma ceti* male whales only. 2. That it is contained in a *cystis* or bag. 3. That there are lumps of it of 20, 21 or 22 pound weight. 4. That this *cystis* lies near the genital parts of the fish. 5. That ambergris newly taken out, is moist, and of an exceeding strong, and offensive smell; in fine, 6. That they owe their accounts and new discoveries to the fishermen and the whalemen.

They differ in the following circumstances. 1. Mr. Dudley affirms that this *cystis* has a duct or canal from either end of the bag; one in the upper part of the bag, coming out of the kidneys, another in the lower part, running into and thro' the length of the *penis*: On the contrary, Mr. Boylston affirms that this *cystis* has neither inlet nor outlet. 2. Mr. Dudley affirms, that tho' in some fish no ambergris be found; yet they always have orange-coloured liquor, mention'd above: But Mr. Boylston affirms that this bag is sometimes found quite empty. 3. Mr. Dudley says, that for one fish that has ambergris, there are 2 in which they hardly find any: But Mr. Boylston, that scarcely one in 100 has any ambergris.

These 3 differences, however, may be easily reconcil'd: As to the first, that according to Mr. Boylston, the bag hath no inlet or outlet; this will only arise from the negligence of the fisherman, who gave the account, and who did not observe every

particular so accurately as Mr. *Atkins* whale-man did: For how could the bag be found sometimes full, and sometimes empty, if it had neither inlet nor outlet? As to the 2d difference, namely that the bag was sometimes found empty, this may be understood either of the balls only, or of the liquor likewise: But it is not directly contrary to Mr. *Dudley's* account, since both may be natural, or happen so at that time: In fine, the 3d difference has no manner of difficulty, but both accounts agree, in that the pretended ambergris is found in some only, but not in all male whales; and as Dr. *Neuman* takes it, a certain is put for an uncertain number.

That the concrete, taken for ambergris, is true ambergris, and not some other very different natural substance, Dr. *Neuman* denies, and entirely agrees with Mr. *Prince*, who, according to Mr. *Dudley*, takes the aforesaid *cystis* to be the urinary bladder, and the ambergris-ball, to be a certain concretion, formed out of the greasy odoriferous substance of the aforesaid liquor, contain'd within it. For his particular Dr. *Neuman* declares, 1. That the *cystis* or bag is no other than the urinary bladder of the whale. 2. That the pretended ambergris, found therein, is only the stone in the bladder; and 3. That the strong scented liquor contain'd in the bag, is the whale's urine. That this bag is the urinary bladder, appears from its description; as that it is 3 or 4 foot long, 2 or 3 foot broad, and almost in the form of an ox's bladder, or like a blacksmith's long bellows; especially when we add its situation under the navel, over the testicles, at the root of the *penis*; and its connection with the *penis* and kidneys, and how it is furnished with a strong-scented liquor, without any of the pretended ambergris: And supposing, according to Mr. *Boylston*, that the bladder is sometimes observ'd to be empty (tho' he expresses himself less accurately on this head, it being probable, he meant, empty of stones) it would not be altogether impossible or unnatural, since the whale might happen to be killed soon after it had made water: What farther confirms it to be urine is, that it is found as all other urine is, in the *urethra* of the whale. That the balls have the same exceeding strong and offensive smell with the liquor, and consist of distinct separable coats like an onion, are circumstances, common and natural to all animal stones as well of the urine as gall-bladder: Such a *calculus* then, is no longer to be reckon'd ambergris; nor the bladder, a peculiar *cystis*; nor the urine a peculiar liquor: This is farther verified from what is said by Mr. *Dudley*, that the whale-men observe the full grown

grown and large whales only to contain ambergris, or rather a *calculus* according to Dr. Neuman; and by Mr. Boylston, that it is scarcely found in one of 100: And these 2 circumstances are both natural and common to men and beasts; viz. that the old are sooner troubled with the stone than the young; and that as scarce one man in a hundred is afflicted with the stone, the same may also happen in brutes: Besides, the number of other animal stones is precarious, being sometimes more and sometimes fewer; and they may conveniently become round by the continual agitation in the urine, tho' the Dr. has observed, that the figure of *calculi*, as also of bezoar-stones, commonly arises from that of the *nucleus*, round which the first crust is laid; at other times their figure is owing to a greater or less space, and a greater or less degree of motion: For, if they be more in number, as to possess the whole capacity of the bladder, or incapable to float and move freely about therein, they then are seldom round, but commonly unequal and informed, and thus they may easily separate into flakes or coats, if they are many in number, or happen to strike against each other: Nor does the circumstance, that the male whales only contain these balls, weigh any thing with the Dr. since it is possible, that the males only are troubled with the stone; or we may not have sufficient experience of this matter as to the females; and that the more as it was laid, that the females or cows are hard to come at; and that hardly one in a hundred of the males, according to Mr. Boylston's observation, is troubled with the stone.

On the contrary, that very circumstance mention'd by Mr. Dudley and Mr. Boylston; viz. that ambergris, which the Dr. calls a *calculus*, is not found in all male whales, and scarcely in one of a hundred, and only in the old ones, shews that it is not such a recrement, as *musk*, *castor*, &c. and at the same time confirms the Dr's. opinion, that it is no other than a *calculus*.

For, 1. were their pretended ambergris a natural recrement, generated in these male whales, and were that bag, some peculiar *cystis* without the urinary bladder, and the concrete found in it some such natural substance, as *musk* in the animal, that yields that drug, *civet* in the civet-cat, and *castor* in the beaver, to all which Mr. Dudley likens this *calculus*, generated from a morbid state of the animal; then all the male *sperma ceti* whales should have this concrete, as beavers have *castor*, *musk-goats*, *musk*, &c. and in that case the b'adder would not be its natural place; and all whales of that species without exception

(not one in a hundred, or the old ones only) would always and necessarily contain such balls.

2. Were this concrete generated in these fishes, and natural to them in a healthful state, as *castor*, musk, civet, &c. to other animals; not only the *sperma ceti* whales in *America*, but also those in the *Spanish*, *French* and *British* seas, especially in the northern ocean, would have it: And yet no such thing has been observed.

3. Mr. *Dudley* affirms, that the largest ball of ambergris he ever saw weigh'd between 21 and 22 lb. which, for the size of the bladder, is a pretty large *calculus*: But the Dr. queries; whence those lumps of ambergris could proceed, which were not entirely round, or of any determinate figure, yet 6 foot long, and weighing 182 lb. and upwards; and not coated like an onion, or friable, or of an orange-colour, much less of an ungrateful smell, and least of all fetid; but entirely unformed, firmly compacted, of a grey colour, and sweet scented? And again, whence could pieces proceed, exceeding the former in weight and size, 10, 20 times and upwards, and not to be contained in the *cystis* of the biggest and oldest whale.

4. The Dr. farther queries, how this ambergris should ever come ashore; it could not proceed from live whales; because the only outlet of the *cystis* is thro' the *penis*, thro' which indeed small pieces might pass; but not such large lumps of ambergris, as are often found. But should it be alledged, that such pieces are got from dead whales, it would remain to account for their passing out of the bag; especially, since it is membranous and of a pretty firm texture; so that its bursting after death, and discharging these floating balls is no such reasonable supposition; and it is a chance but ambergris might be sometimes found floating about in its bag, but this is a thing that has never happened to any one.

5. The becks of birds, the claws, shells, and spines, of fishes and other adventitious matters, sometimes found in ambergris could not pass thro' the kidneys and *ureters* into the bladder, or pretended bag of ambergris.

6. And lastly, but waving all other arguments, Dr. *Neuman* adduces one, as an uncontested principle, and his chemico-physical canon, by which he regulates himself in all natural disquisitions; and which never failed him, nor really can, if applied with judgment and discretion: And this was his principal motive of denying ambergris to be either an animal production or extract. It is a thing well known, that not only *castor*, musk and

and civet, but likewise all animals and their parts, of whatever denomination, should exhibit themselves such in a chemical analysis, especially in an open fire or in distillation; and consequently, necessarily yield an empyreumatic urinous spirit, or phlegm, or an animal fetid oil, or together with it an urinous volatile salt; and if all these not at once; yet some small quantity, or at least some signs of an urinous liquor or empyreumatic animal oil, which shall affect the smell and taste, when these bodies are treated in the fire; as all animal bodies really do, and even their shells, these stony and earthy parts, do in this test betray their animal origin: And thus likewise shall the pretended balls of ambergris, which the Dr. supposes to be stones in the whale's bladder, plainly and sufficiently shew by this test, that they are not only of a pure animal, but of a pure urinous original, as being generated from the whale's urine. But if any one on the contrary, should take genuine ambergris, depurated from all visible animal parts, and not swallow'd by any animal, and distil it in the same manner in an open fire, and examine what is got from it; he shall not find even the least urinous part, nor empyreumatic animal oil, nor any thing animal, but quite different modified productions, a different phlegm, oil and salt, as shall be further shewn hereafter.

This, therefore, may be looked upon as an infallible sign and an undoubted truth; that when in the chemical treatment of ambergris the least quantity of an animal substance is got, whether oleaginous, or urino-saline; that this can by no means be produced from pure amber, but from some animal matter accidentally mix'd therewith, and which is always to be considered as something adventitious, impure and not belonging to the composition of ambergris; whether the process be made with ambergris that has, or has not been swallow'd before, but with which are mixed the becks of birds or other small parts of animals.

But that ambergris swallow'd down by fishes, or other animals, suffers some degree of alteration, at least some animal taint or foulness can hardly be denied; whether it be afterwards discharged by the mouth or *anus*, or whether it be found and taken out of dead fishes: And on that score it generally smells ranker and appears of a darker colour; nay, experience has taught even to distinguish immediately by inspection what has been swallowed down; on which account it has in some places been called the dung or excrement of whales, as was observed above.

And

And since the 2 abovementioned accounts, transmitted from America, are from whale-fishers and Merchants; nay partly from hearsay: Hence we are so much the less to regard them as unquestionably certain or new, on the true origin and nature of ambergris.

To come now to the last class, namely such as hold ambergris for a mineral, or ascribe its origin to the mineral kingdom; these may be divided into 5 opinions, each of which, in a certain sense, may be approv'd of.

*Hugo de Lindscott*, vide *Klobii ambrae hist.* p. 19. takes ambergris for an earth: But this is contrary to nature and experience and the properties of ambergris; unless earth be taken in a wider sense, as one of the chemical principles, and not for a mere earthy matter; for, earth does not so easily take fire, nor so readily melt, nor admit a solution with spirits of urine, nor to mention other properties of ambergris.

2. Others attending only to the properties of liquation and inflammability; as *Crato*, in *Consilia a Laur. Scholtzio collect. Column.* 1093, and several others, have taken ambergris for a native and true sulphur; Dr. *Salmon*, affirms that it is a marine sulphur: vide *London Dispensatory* p. 398. *Edit. Lond.* 1696. 8vo: And such a denomination is passable, were no more meant than that ambergris partakes of an inflammable or sulphureous principle; since not only the ancients, but many moderns give the denomination, sulphur, to whatever takes fire; whether it be a mineral, vegetable, or animal substance; an oil, fat, rosin, wax, pitch, balsam, wood, coals, bitumen, spirit of wine, or whatever else it be: But since this general denomination expresses nothing specific or determinate; and since at the same time it appears pretty evident, that a native and true sulphur is meant, and not the inflammable principle; ambergris can be no true sulphur. 1. Let ambergris be sprinkled on live coals, and its smell examined whether it agree with that of sulphur. 2. Let it be tried with a fixt alcaline salt, whether it yield a *hepar sulphuris*, vitriolated tartar, &c. 3. Whether ambergris again reduce *regulus* of antimony into crude antimony. 4. Whether there is a *lac sulphuris* from a solution of ambergris in quick-lime water, or an alcaline *lixivium*. 5. Whether from ambergris and mercury cinnabar be produced; and whether several other preparations, which are otherways made with true sulphur, be obtainable with ambergris. And all the attempts and proofs to that purpose, will become vain and ineffectual, as *Libavius* has already shewn against *Crato*.

Some

Some at length come nearer the matter, and hold amber-is not only for a mineral, but for what it really is, a bitumen, or species thereof; but happen to differ in some circumstances.

3. Some affirm that ambergrise is produced in a liquid form.

4. But others in a dry form.

5. Others again, that it is produced in the sea in a viscous form, or of a mean consistence.

They likewise differ, in that some affirm, that ambergrise arises from under the shore and rolls down into the sea: But others attempt to shew, that it arises from the abyss, rather from the bottom of the sea.

1. Such as suppose ambergrise to have been originally liquid, or conveyed into the sea in a liquid form, hold it originally in its nature for a liquid bitumen, or species of *Naphtha*; and amongst these are *Ebnina*, *Simeon Sethi*, *Avicenna*, *Agricola*, *Solenander*, *Bertinus*, *Libus*, *Garcias ab Horto*, *Hadrianus Toll*, *Job. Eusebius Pierrenbergius*, *Franciscus Hernandez*, and several others, who all hold, that ambergrise rolls into the sea from a bituminous fountain, or fountain of *Naphtha*; and they differ only in some little circumstances, that are not material; for instance, according to *Avicenna* and *Psellus*, it flows from lateral springs into the sea: Others, on the contrary among whom is *Nicolaus Chevalier*, who in 1700 described a large piece of ambergrise at *Amsterdam*) affirm that it spontaneously springs from the bottom of the sea, and from the depths reservoirs of water is distill'd by the central heat, it were, into the sea.

2. Others, who hold that ambergrise is conveyed into the sea in a dry form, affirm, that it is a kind of amber, or real dry bitumen, which is conveyed in the same manner into the sea, as the common yellow amber. *Andreas Cæsalpinus*, it is true, calls it a gem; however he classes it under the species of amber. The above quoted *M. Oelvin*, who took ambergris for a meteor, yet in a certain place of his treatise *Der Monathlichen curieusen Natur-kunst. Staats- und Sitten præsenten, zweytes stuck im Februar. 1708. p. 56.* affirms, that amber has a great affinity with ambergris; yet with this difference, that ambergris is found in warmer climates, where flowers and aromatics arrive to their highest perfection and most fragrant smell; whereas amber, on the contrary,

contrary, is only found in the cold northern climates, and in the colder Baltic; consequently, the latter is of a coarser and harder substance. In fine, the experienced and learned Dr. Henckel, vide *Bethesda Portuosa* p. 74. affirms, that ambergris, amber and asphaltum, or the oriental amber, common amber, and black amber, do not differ from one another in their essential principles, but only in their accidents and degrees; which last opinion agrees chiefly with experience.

3. In fine, such as suppose ambergris to run in a viscous form, of a mean consistence, into the sea, affirm, that it is at first like a soft pitch, or cow-turd in or upon the bottom of the sea, that gradually hardens: *Helbigius*, therefore, asserts that ambergris is neither a gum, rosin, dung of birds, nor bees-wax, but a true viscous matter like pitch, that lies and grows, at the bottom of the sea, like sea-pitch; and this account was sent him by a merchant from Batavia, who had seen it with his own eyes, *Ephem. Nat. Cur. Decur.*

*Ann. IX. p. 459.* The above-mentioned celebrated *Rumpfius* in his letter to *Ten Rhyne*; *Valentini Oost-Indische send-schreiben*, p. 50. says, that this is certain, and that he advanced nothing new, but his old opinion about the origin of ambergris; namely, that it is a kind of fat, that arises from the bottom of the sea, which at first is soft and viscid, but afterwards becomes hard by the saltiness of the sea. *Aldrovandi* (*Mus. Metallic. lib. III. p. 434.*) after adducing several opinions, does at length conclude to the following purpose:

- But I reckon these distinctions of no weight; since I have asserted it to be a kind of bitumen, and not the dung of fishes or whales.'

*Borelli*, it is true, in loc. citat. *Observationum*, endeavours to form another objection, alledging that ambergris is not bitumen; that bitumen's have an ungrateful smell, and are not fit for internal uses: But in such cases we cannot always conclude from the genus to the species, nor from the species to the genus, as appears even from common amber; for amber is now universally acknowledged for a bitumen; and yet it has no ungrateful smell, but is us'd internally in pretty large quantity and with safety; not to mention what is said in *Act. Erudit. Lipsien.* An. 1684. of a certain spring in Poland, that yields a liquid sweet-scented bitumen that is good both in physic and diet, and has a very fragrant and balsamic smell.

Nicolaus Monardes, *de simpl. medicam.* p. 12. has already said; ‘ there are various opinions about the origin of amber-grease; but the truest is, that it is a kind of bitumen, flowing from a spring, which as soon as it touches the air, immediately hardens in the same manner, as many other concretes, as coral, &c. which at the bottom of the sea are soft.’

Joh. Faber. *Lyncaeus in Exposit. in Rech.* p. 565. affirms this, therefore, is very certain, that ambergris is no other than a bitumen’.

In short, the greatest part of the writers of natural history agree in the following respects, namely 1. That there are both liquid and consistent bitumens. 2. That all bitumens are referable to the mineral kingdom. 3. That a dry bitumen is no other than a tenacious fat of the earth, and which readily burns; and 4. That ambergrise is endued with the same properties; that consequently it may without any contradiction, not only be a mineral, but likewise a peculiar species of bitumen.

Tho’ something more might be added, as to the original consistence of ambergris; one affirming it carried into the sea under a solid, another under a viscid and tenacious, and a third under an entire liquid form; yet the Dr. sees no absolute necessity for it; since these three opinions, as being the chief of those already adduced, may be easily united, and so combin’d together, as to be all true in a certain respect.

1. No one, perhaps, who has any solid knowledge of the origin of several subterraneous substances, will deny, that all bitumens are originally liquid; even tho’ they do not come into the sea in a liquid form.

2. That both ambergris and amber must needs be originally, if not entirely liquid, yet for some time in a viscous form; or even ambergris, when thrown out upon the shore, must at least continue of such a texture, that if it happen’d to harden in the sea, it may easily be softened by the sun: For, otherways it could not include the becks of birds, shells of fishes and their parts; as many such things are really found in ambergrise; and, as is pretty evident, such a variety of insects and other things are likewise found in amber.

3. In fine, it is pretty evident, that tho’ ambergrise in an entire dry form appears like impure and somewhat soft amber, yet as a true bitumen.

What *Franciscus Hernandez* says on this head is worth notice; namely that ambergrise runs from some springs of *Naphtha* into the sea, and by stormy weather is thrown upon the shore; that it is a very fragrant inflammable matter, one time harder, another softer, sometimes friable and sometimes flexible; so as in some measure to be extensible and flexible between the teeth and fingers like wax.

Dr. Neuman therefore thinks. 1. That ambergris runs out of the earth into the sea like amber. 2. But not like *Naphtha* or petrol, but in a grosser and flexible form, and probably often of a viscid and clammy consistence. 3. That under the first concretion or formation of ambergrise, runs together a liquid bitumen or species of *Naphtha*. 4. That large pieces may be generated at once; but generally at first they are small; but by the accession of several new layers, the ambergris may be sometimes round, sometimes long, or even become of any unequal form: And during its formation it is always somewhat soft, whence many matters may be entangled in it; however from time to time it may gradually harden to the consistence of wax: And since most ambergris appears thus in layers or coats; this circumstance might mislead those in *America* to imagine that it is generated in the same manner as the bezoar or human stone; tho' they might reflect that various other subterraneous bodies, both the bituminous, as pit-coals, alum &c. and other minerals, as talc, slate, *lapis specularis*, &c. consist of layers, as animal *calculi* do.

As to the rest, the Dr. thinks it not so necessary to make such deep and accurate researches into the original and primordial production of ambergrise: For, who can with certainty pretend to explain the manner in which common amber is produced? How metals, semi-metals, gems, fluor and many other mineral concretes are generated? Very few are the subterraneous mixts, of whose manner of production we have any certain knowledge, tho' we may form a conjecture about this and the other, nay, know the nature of very many of them: The manner of their generation seems to be no such necessary and useful knowledge; it is sufficient for us if we know what kingdom they are of, and if we know their internal composition and nature; and this latter manifests their kingdom: And physico-chemical experience is the most genuine and infallible touchstone for all natural mixts.

To conclude, it is surprising that *Paulus Hermannus*, a man of sufficient experience in the *Materia Medica*, should make no mention of ambergris in his *Cynosura*: This, however is a more tolerable conduct than that of *Leonhardus Fuchs*, who ridiculously held all ambergris for factitious: But to wave this, let us farther consider from whence it is brought to us.

Ambergris for the greatest part comes from the *East-Indies*, from *Madagascar* and thereabouts, the *Molucca* islands, *Sumatra*, *Borneo*, *Cape Commorim* in *Malabar*, and the *Ethiopic* coasts, which from *Sofala* to *Brana* is very productive of ambergris: It is also found in other countries, either as it may be driven very far into the sea, and consequently thrown out again upon the shore in various places of the earth, or as it may be met with in the several ways abovementioned.

"Tis worthy taking notice, that this precious bitumen is often found in very large pieces or lumps: But not to mention what *Abel Lynæus* relates from *Gregory de Bolivar*, that sometimes there are pieces of ambergris of 100,000 lb. weight; much less what *Garcias ab Horto* tells us, that there are whole islands full of ambergris; nor what *Isaac Vigny* a Frenchman relates, that he knew a country, so rich in ambergris, that a thousand ships might be laden with it; all which seem to stretch the point too much, especially the latter; Dr. *Neuman* produces the following instances, which may serve to shew that there are really large pieces of ambergris.

In 1555 at *Cape Commorim* a piece was found of about 100 lb. and which was then sold for *Asphaltum* or common bitumen: *John Hugo de Lindschot* relates that there was found about this Cape a piece of 30 quintals, which is equal to 150 hundred weight. *Monardes* and *Franciscus Hernandez* make mention of pieces of 100 lb. weight; *Garcias ab Horto* speaks of pieces as big as a man; besides a piece, that was 90 hands in length and 18 in breadth: *Montanus* mentions a piece of 60 lb. weight, and kept by the king of *Satsuma* in 1659: In 1666 about *Cape Verd* at the river *Gambi* a piece of 80 lb. weight was thrown out, which was brought to *Holland*: In 1691 there was at *Amsterdam* a lump of 42 lb. *Daniel de Bruel* affirms that about *Malacca* a piece was found of 33 lb. at *Rome*, a piece as big as a man's head; and here and at *Lotto* and in other places in *Italy* are several valuable curiosities of ambergris, which abundantly shew that they were wrought out of very large pieces: The abovementioned *Vigny* had no small piece, which he brought from *India*, and for which he had

had 1300 lb. sterling; *Kämpfer* relates that in his time there was found in *Kinokuni*, a province of *Japan*, a piece upwards of 100 *Catti* or 130 *Dutch lb.* weight: The two brothers *Joh. Andreas* and *Marcus Matsperger* of *Augsburg* bought of *Robert Struzzi* at *Venice* in 1613 a piece that weighed 48 lb. and 8 oz. And to mention no more, we have a very recent and withal strong, instance in that large piece of ambergris, which the *East-India* company in *Holland* bought in 1693 of the king of *Tidor* for 11000 dollars; which was at first of the form of a tortoise and weighed 182 lb. was 5 foot 8 inches thick, and 2 foot 2 inches long: The above named *Nicolas Chevalier* has described it at large in a small treatise published at *Amsterdam* in 1700, with various copper plates of it in different views: From all these instances we can no longer doubt but that there are pretty large pieces of ambergris; so that it may be queried how the accounts from *America*, that mention a bag, can agree with lumps of ambergris of such bulk?

*An Account of a new Engine for raising Water; by Walter Churchman. Phil. Trans. N° 434. p. 402.*

1. IN this engine the horses or other animals draw horizontally in a straight line and at right angles, whereby they exert their utmost force; by which means a far greater power is gain'd from the strength of horses, &c. than by their going round in a circle: For, by the twist and acuteness of the angles they draw in towards the centre, whereby they waste their power, and likewise shorten their levers: Besides, their muscle and tendons from their hinder legs all along their sides to their necks are unequally strain'd, as the duty is hardest on one side even tho' their walk be large: Therefore, each of those inconveniences must be attended with pain to the animals when at work, and with a great loss of their strength.

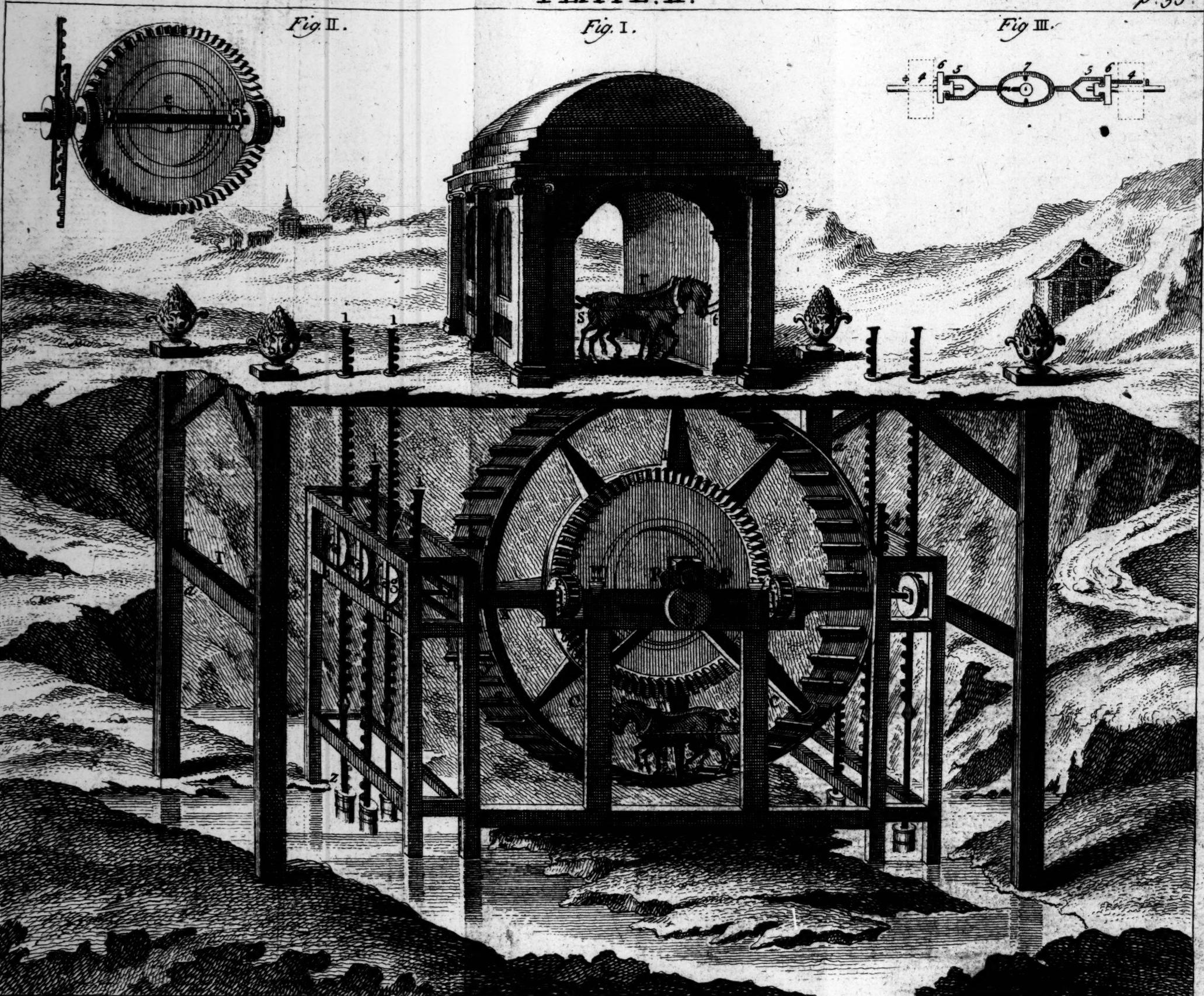
2. A crank does not rise quite  $\frac{1}{2}$  of its circle; neither do the regulators or rods rise or fall perpendicular, but obliquely whereby an oval figure is formed by the pistons motion in every cylinder, which occasions great friction and a waste of water, and every arm of it is continually varying in its power while working; as its lever is distant from the perpendicular line, and of the arms (supposing it a quadruple one) as they cross the perpendicular, are always drawing to and from their own centre by which the power is not only lost, but the time also. Further, by the shortness of the strokes, all the adjacent water frequently mov'd contrarily, and by the often opening and

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shutting of the valves, there is also a great waste of the water; besides the many heavy bearings, frictions, surges and repairs belonging to it; all which inconveniences and impediments being thoroughly consider'd, there must certainly be requir'd a much greater power to work the same than by Mr. Churchman's method. For, thereby a stroke of 24 feet will rise; and by enlarging or diminishing the fixed wallower, you obtain a stroke of any required height, even to the extent of the pressure of the atmosphere: By this great advantage, the water rises freer, and with greater velocity; and as the lifters or forcers rise and fall exactly perpendicular, and with an equal continued strain; and as the bearings also are fewer and lighter, consequently, the friction in all these will be a great deal less than with the crank, &c. And lastly,  $\frac{1}{2}$  of that water which is always lost by the slow opening and shutting of the valves will be sav'd.

From the above considerations, and by the several experiments Mr. Churchman made on this occasion, in order to know the real difference between these different ways of working, he finds that near twice the quantity of water will be rais'd to the same height, in the same time, with the same power, by his method, than with the best crank-work that has hitherto been erected.

aaaa (Fig. 1. Plate II.) represents the great frame, the ends of which under the pine-apples are to be contracted to the place of the little frame; so that the cross piece at III may support the 3 bearings, now shewn in the little one, for a better view only; bb the little frame on which the cap-brasses are, which receive the turn'd gudgeons T in the 3 horizontal shafts; cc the strong supporters by the loose wallowers; dd the loose wallowers, whose turned rounds gear truly with the cogs in the great wheel; eee the regulator, (Fig. 2.) which has a circular, direct and retrograde motion; ff the strong shoulder or stud fixt to the shaft close by the wallower, which stops this loose wallower, when the end of the regulator comes against it, thereby confining it for 2 revolutions; after which it quits this stud, and does the same on the opposite side of the wheel; and so on alternately, to reverse the motion of the stems in the different cylinders; gg the wheels, with their cogs, which alternately work the fixt wallower lying between them; b the fixt wallower suppos'd to be 4 foot in diameter (on a very short shaft) whose rounds must be of cast soft iron, and truly turned, to elevate and depress the racks to the height of 24 feet by its 2 revolutions; iiiii the 4 lifters or forcers, behind each of which

which must be a small leverage back wheel, truly fitted to direct the same to rise and fall easily and exactly perpendicular, to avoid friction and loss of water in the cylinders ; *k* the large vertical wheel, a small segment of which comes thro' the floor in the dome for the 4 horses to stand and draw on ; *l m* (Fig. 3.) the arms and the main shaft of the same ; the arms lie horizontal and the oval part is perpendicular ; *n* the turned T gudgeon, with its collar and shoulder, both of which must clasp the rim of the under leverage wheel, to keep all firm and steady when in working ; *o* the leverage wheel about 4 feet in diameter, with a brass or iron rim suppos'd to be truly turned, and to have a strong short iron spindle thro' its center, and at each end a turned steel collar and shoulder, bearing on 2 cast cap-brasses exactly level, and sunk into a strong arch'd piece of timber well braced and supported for this purpose. And here it is to be noted, that in large engines and machines where the motion is regular, every heavy bearing should have one of these wheels : For, they save power by greatly abating friction. Upon the principle of these leverage-wheels Captain *Rowe* has publish'd what he calls his friction-wheels, tho' subsequent to Mr. *Churchman's* specification thereof ; *p p* two small side leverage wheels, exactly fitted to the turned part of the great gudgeon, between the collar and shoulder ; they are to be placed and key'd in such manner, that their friction from the gudgeon may be alike when at work ; *q q* the steps which the horses feet press, about 8 or 9 inches broad, 2 inches thick behind, and declining to an edge, being designed to make level ground, and good footing for their hinder legs when they draw ; *r r* four horses only in view to avoid confusion, all drawing horizontally in a streight line, and at right angles, whereby these useful animals will soon be taught a new and pleasant way of working to themselves, a more advantageous one to their masters, and of greater utility to the public ; *s* the fastening places behind the horses, suppos'd to be strong arms below in the supporter, and a cross bar above, at both which you may place small sheeves or rollers, the upper part of them to be level with each horses breast (when drawing) and the rope or strap to come over the same, in order to keep a weight of 300 lb. (more or less) suspended, one or two inches from a plank. By this method you will be exactly informed of the strength of each horse, how long it continues, and when to relieve him ; as also when justly to correct the slothful one, whose weight resting on the plank will always discover his laziness ; *t* the fastening places before, which are design'd to direct their

their heads ; *u* the dome meerly for ornament ; instead of which erect a workloft, over that a horizontal windmil : On the lower end of its upright shaft fix a spur-wheel to work with the cogs of the great wheel, thereby to assist the horses, or when there is a sufficient force of wind to do their whole duty ; *w* the coupling staples with the brasses ; *x* the strong catch which confines the great wheel to the frame ; *y* the screw or key-band to confine all close and light ; *z* the cylinders which are screw'd together at their ends out of sight ; and all the same sort of work chiefly for uniformity in the draught.

*An Abstract of Meteorological Diaries ; with Remarks thereon ; by Dr. Derham.* Phil. Trans. N° 434. p. 405.

**T**H E following meteorological observations were made at Naples by Dr. *Cyrillus*, at Bengal by Mr. *Bellamy*, and at Christiana in Norway, by —— communicated by M. *Kink.*

Ann. 1727.

The following Tables of the barometrical and thermometrical observations are the more valuable, on account of their being made, as the Dr. supposes, with some of Mr. *Hawksbee's* glasses.

The barometrical means at Naples, are both as they are set down by the illustrious observer himself, according to Dr. *Furin's* directions, and likewise as they are between the highest and lowest stations of every month : Those of Norway are in the latter way.

*A Table of the Barometrical Ranges at Naples and at Christiana in Norway, in the Year 1727.*

	JANUAR.	FEB.	MAR.	
	Naples.	Naples.	Naples.	Norw
High	29.80	29.88	30.6	29.3
Mean	29.55	29.65	29.63	29.59
Low	29.30	29.38	29.12	29.0

	APRIL.	MAY.	JUNE.	
	Naples.	Naples.	Naples.	Norw
High	29.88	29.88	29.72	29.3
Mean	29.63	29.72	29.71	29.6
Low	29.54	29.54	29.46	29.0

*The*

## MEMOIRS of the

*The Table continued.*

	JULY.		AUGUST.		SEPT.	
	Naples.	Norw.	Naples.	Norw.	Naples.	
High	29.80	29.7	29.80	29.7	29.88	
Mean	29.67	29.70	29.55	29.63	29.5	29.59
Low	29.54	29.0	29.30	29.3	29.30	29.72

	OCTOBER.		NOVEM.		DECMB.	
	Naples.	Naples.	Naples.	Naples.	Naples.	
High	29.88		30.06		29.88	
Mean	29.50	29.66	29.59	29.75	29.59	29.65
Low	29.12		29.12		29.30	

A Table of the Thermometrical Ranges at Naples, Bengal  
and Christiana in the Year 1727.

	JAN.		MARCH.		APRIL.		MAY.	
	Nap	Nap.	Nap.	Beng.	Nap.	Beng.	Nap.	Beng.
High	51.3	44.5	48.3	15.2	41.0	15.3	30.0	20.4
Mean	47.1	40.0	41.0	7.6	31.0	7.9	24.0	10.6
Low	43.0	35.0	34.5	0.1	21.0	0.6	18.0	0.7

	JUNE.			JULY.		
	Nap.	Beng.	Christ.	Nap.	Beng.	Christ.
High	20.0	10.8	46	17.0	15.4	4
Mean	14.7	5.8	37	10.0	7.7	3
Low	9.5	0.8	29	3.0	0.1	30

	AUGUST.			SEP.		OCT.	NOV.	DEC.
	Nap.	Beng.	Christ.	Nap.	Beng.	Nap.	Nap.	Nap.
High	21.0	15.4	45	25.0	10.4	13.5	47.0	50.5
Mean	11.1	7.8	35	19.7	7.7	32.2	43.7	43.2
Low	7.3	0.2	25	14.5	5.0	21.0	40.5	36.0

These tables give an easy view of the barometer and thermometer in the several distant parts of the world specified

which

which would have been very instructive, had they been observ'd throughout the year, as they were at *Naples*.

By the barometrical observations it appears, that the ascent and descent of the mercury is not so great at *Naples*, as in the more northerly climates : For, it was but twice in the whole year above 30 inches ; and but thrice as low as 29.<sup>12</sup> inches. And so in *Phil. Trans.* N° 321. Dr. *Derham* observed, that at *Zurich* the range is but about an inch ; but at *Upminster* he finds the highest ascent to have been 30.44 inches and the lowest descent 27.44 inches, which is a range of 2 inches and  $\frac{1}{2}$  : And by his account of the *Petersburg* observations in 1724. *Phil. Trans.* N° 424. p. 107. it appears that the mercurial range there is 3.31 inches : And as to *Norway*, the observations are too few, and all made only in the summer months, whereby no good judgment could be form'd : And at *Bengal* they had no barometer.

By the thermometrical table we may judge of the heat and cold of the several places : For the right understanding of which, it is to be noted, that in Mr. *Hawksbee's* thermometers, the point of extreme heat is 5 degrees above 0 ; the point of temperate 45 degrees below 0 ; and the point of freezing 65 degrees. But Dr. *Cyrillus* saith, it freezes with them at *Naples*, when the spirits are only got to 55 degrees. His words, which are to the following purpose, are remarkable : ‘ I take it to be worthy of your sagacity, and your study of nature, to account how it comes to pass, that with us water freezes when the spirits in the thermometer are scarcely fallen to 55 degrees ; whereas at *London*, not before they are at 65 degrees, where your point of frost is marked. And if our Philosophy can avail us any thing, it should seem that there is something or other requisite, with which our air is impregnated, and yours not, besides an intense degree of cold to congeal water, as in artificial freezing, not snow alone, but such as is mixed with salt, is to be employed.

And as it freezes at *Naples* at a warmer degree of the thermometer ; so Dr. *Derham* observes, that at *Christiana*, the illustrious observer complains of the vehement heat of the sun in July, when the spirits were but at 36 and 34 degrees : In August at 25, 27, and 28 degrees, when he says the weather was exceeding hot. The Dr. thus distinctly mentions (as the author doth) the heat of the sun, and the heat of the weather ; because they may not mean the same thing, he having been informed by the whale fishers, that in *Greenland* the heat of the sun is scarce

tolerable on one side of the ship, when on the other it freezes hard.

At *Bengal* the heat at sometimes seems to be very intense, by the thermometer being in some months more degrees above 0, than the point of extreme heat is: As particularly in *April*, *May*, and *June*, it was 6, 7, and 8 degrees above 0. But those excessive heats are commonly in the afternoons, the forenoons being more temperate; and the temperature, or what they call cold there, is at the same time of the day: And the degree of the thermometer, at which they reckon it coldish, is about 15 degrees. And on *May 2.* at 8 o'clock in the morning Mr. *Bellamy* saith, (the thermometer being then at 20.4 degrees) *the morning was like winter weather in Europe.*

Whether this so different judgment of great cold at *Bengal*, when the thermometer was about 20 degrees, and of excessive heat at *Christiana*, when it was but a little below that, viz. at 25 degrees, &c. Whether it arises from some prejudice, or from some extraordinary quality in the air, Dr. *Derham* leaves, as Dr. *Cyrillus* doth, to others to determine.

As to the weather, winds, rain, &c. of the several places Dr. *Derham* only gives a transient view of every month.

At *Naples*, *January* was a cool month, frequent rain with much thunder and storms of wind. The rain amounted to 111 measures and  $\frac{1}{2}$  (23 of which make an *English* inch in depth) which is 4 inches, 19 measures and  $\frac{1}{2}$ , or near five inches. *Vesuvius* was pretty quiet.

*February* was a drier month, the rain amounting only to 14 measures, which is but a little above  $\frac{1}{2}$  an inch deep. The weather was for the most part cloudy, with some frosts. *Vesuvius* emitted a thick smoke.

At *Naples*, in *March* it was cold, with hail and snow on the mountains; the rain amounted to 101 measures, which make 4 inches, 9 measures depth. The winds were in all the points. *Vesuvius* discharged rivulets of fire.

At *Bengal*, the 5 last days of *March* (which were all observed in this month) were fair, the wind S2.

In *April* the winds at *Naples* were much in the northerly points, cold, frequent thunder, the rain only 38 measures, which make 1 inch, 15 measures. There was no fire in *Vesuvius* the beginning of the month, but towards the latter end, divers rivers of fire and smoke.

At *Bengal* the wind was much among the southerly points, cloudy, some rain and thunder. The weather for the most part temperate, but great heats in the afternoons.

In May at *Naples*, the wind lay much in the westerly and uthery points. Rain 103 measures and  $\frac{1}{2}$ , which make 4 inches 11 measures and  $\frac{1}{2}$  in depth, with frequent thunder. *Vesuvius* cast out rivers of fire, which reach'd almost to the bottom of the mountain.

At *Bengal* the winds varying, but for the most part southerly, with much cloudy, rain and thunder. The beginning of the month colder than ordinary; afterwards exceeding hot.

In June, at *Naples*, the wind was much in the westerly and north westerly points, but little rain, only 6 measures and  $\frac{1}{2}$ , which is but about  $\frac{1}{4}$  of an inch depth.

At *Bengal* much rain, with thunder and heat. On June 11 it is noted; 'we are now pretty certain the rains are set in.'

At *Christiana*, the observations begin on June 22, the weather temperate, and for the most part cloudy, with thunder, hail, and rain.

At *Naples* July was a hot dry month; without any rain, but frequent mists. *Vesuvius* quiet.

At *Bengal*, there was frequent and much rain, with thunder and lightning; for the most part cloudy; winds perpetually varying.

At *Christiana* great rains with thunder, frequent fogs, some air, and complaints of vehement heat; tho' the thermometer was but at 39 degrees in that month.

In August, at *Naples* the wind was in the westerly and north-westerly points, showers with thunder were frequent, which amounted only to 49 measures and  $\frac{1}{2}$ , which is but a little above inches depth. And tho' by the table the weather seems to have been warm; yet there are frequent complaints of the air being cold. *Vesuvius* cast forth a large river of fire.

At *Bengal*, much rain, with thunder and cloudy, winds varying, but pretty much easterly; weather sometimes very hot, but for the most part more temperate than in some of the other months.

At *Christiana*, the wind various; frequent mists with clouds, and sometimes fair, and sometimes rain. Great complaints of heat, tho' no great signs of it by the thermometer.

In September, at *Naples*, the winds various and very stormy towards the latter end of the month, with horrible thunder, lightning, and heavy rain, which amounted to 220 measures and  $\frac{1}{2}$ , making 9 inches 13 measures and  $\frac{1}{2}$  in depth; which is more than fell in any month this year, and drown'd the marshes, and did a great deal of damage to houses, trees, &c. *Vesuvius* was quiet at the beginning, but fiery at the end.

Bengal bath only the 7 first days observations, where the wind was mostly easterly, cloudy and showery, with thunder and lightning.

The observations of the remaining months are all of Naples where in October, the wind was various, and sometimes stormy, with thunder; frequent mists, and sometimes heavy rain amounting to 107 measures, which is 4 inches 15 measures, and in the mountains, snow. *Vesuvius* was turbulent in the beginning of the month, and emitted a river of fire.

November was, for the most part, a cloudy misty month with thunder and rain; but of no greater quantity than 73 measures, which are equal to three inches 4 measures depth. English. Then the wind was more northerly than in any other quarter. The fire of *Vesuvius* less.

December was a wet, seasonable month, the rain being 17 measures, which is 7 inches 18 measures in depth; and this upon the rains and unseasonable weather of the preceding month greatly damaged the fruits of the earth. The rain of the whole year the illustrious observer computes at 3 English feet 7 inches and 14  $\frac{1}{2}$  measures: And to show how much wetter this year was than these other, he gives these quantities of the year 1725, 2 English foot 10 inches, 14 measures: Of 1725, 2 foot 10 inches, 17 measures: Of 1726, 1 foot, 11 inches, 14  $\frac{1}{2}$  measures

*The dead bodies of a Man and Woman preserved for 49 years in the Moors in Derbyshire, by Dr. Charles Balguy. Philos. Trans. N° 434. p. 413.*

**T**HES two persons were lost in a great storm of snow on the moors, in the parish of *Hope*, near the woodlands in *Derbyshire* on Jan. 14. 1674; and not being found till the 3d of May following, they then smelt so strong, the coroner ordered them to be buried on the spot: They lay in the peat-moss for 28 years and 9 months before they were look'd at again; when some countrymen, having observ'd the extraordinary quality of this soil in preserving dead bodies from corruption, were curious enough to open the Ground, to see if these persons had been so preserved, and they found them very alter'd, the colour of their skin being fair and natural, their flesh soft, as that of persons newly dead: They were afterwards exposed for 20 years, tho' they were much changed at that time, by being so often uncover'd: And in 1716 their condition was as follows: The man was perfect, his beard strong,

and about  $\frac{1}{4}$  of an inch in length; the hair of his head short, his skin hard, and of the colour of tanned leather, which is nearly that of the liquor and earth they lay in: The woman being taken out of the ground, had one leg off, the flesh decay'd, and the bone sound; the flesh of one hand decay'd and the bone sound; the upper lip and the tip of her nose decay'd, but no other part of her face: Her hair was long and springy, as that of a living person: The upper part of one of her foreteeth, as far as was contained in the socket, was as elastic as a piece of steel; and wrapt round the finger, it would spring again to its first form: But it lost this power after it had been kept for a few minutes in the pocket: They were afterwards buried in Hope Church, where viewing them some time after, they were found entirely consumed.

They had lain about a yard deep in the soil or moist moss, but without any water in the place: The man's legs, which had never been uncover'd till now he was buried, were quite fair; the flesh, when pressed with the finger, fitted a little, and the joints play'd freely, and without the least stiffness: The other parts were much decay'd: What was left of their cloaths, (for the greatest part of them had been cut away, to carry home as a curiosity) was firm and good: The woman had on a piece of new serge, which seemed never the worse.

The sequel of the Account of Ambergrease by Dr. Neuman.  
Phil. Trans. N°. 435. p. 417. translated from the Latin.

AS to outward appearance, there are several sorts of ambergrease, as ash-colour'd, whitish, yellowish, of a dark ash colour, and smooth, as if done over with leather, red, veiny, spotted, and entirely blackish, both that swallowed by animals and afterwards either ejected into the sea, or found in their bodies, as that which was not swallowed. The ambergrease, that has been swallowed, is both the basest and least valuable; for, it generally retains something of the place, from which it was taken, or some animal factor, and consequently is easily distinguishable from good ambergrease: So likewise, that sort, which is entirely blackish, or whitish, is of no great value: In like manner, what appears smooth, uniform, and too pure to the eye, is to be suspected, as rarely genuine, and generally adulterated, if not entirely factitious and compounded. On the contrary, what appears ash-colour'd, veiny, or even spotted white, black, or yellow, coated over with an external blackish crust;

crust, tho' not so very pure, but mixt here and there with the becks of birds, parts of the cuttle-fish, the spines of fishes or other matters, yet for all this it is reckoned the best : Tho' the admixture of these impurities be not always so necessary, but that, if it can be had, it may be chose rather pure than impure ; the Dr. only mentions this, to shew that the best sort is generally mix'd with variety of trash.

The primary properties of good ambergris, besides those already mentioned, are the following ; that it be light, and feel almost like wax, and at the same time be friable, yet a little tough, so that in pounding, it may stick to the mortar or pestle, be of a fragrant smell, easily take fire at a burning candle, and constantly preserve its flame, easily melt over the fire or a live coal, and have no particular taste, neither bitter nor austere, neither acid nor saline.

The common way of trying the genuineness of ambergris is (to prevent wasting much of it) to prick it with a needle, or other fine instrument, made red hot ; and then something like melted rosin should appear about the needle and rise up : Or it is thrown on live coals, or a little of it is melted in a silver ladle over a burning candle : This proof, it is true, has its use ; but if you cannot accurately distinguish the exhaling odour, and besides, observe the various other circumstances, and only attend to its melting, even this common proof may fail, and it may equally hold in adulterated, nay in factitious ambergris ; as does also that other recommended by *Ettmiller* ; viz. that genuine ambergris softens between the fingers like wax, whereas the factitious is friable ; a property that may be easily given it by art, and which is neither constant nor universal.

Ambergris is adulterated, nay even compounded by impostors, with wax, rosin, storax, benjamin, amber, *ladanum*, musk, civet, aloes, the rottenness of the ash-tree, the flower of rice, the moss of trees, &c. According as one cheat improves upon another, in a juster proportion and mixture of these ingredients ; but the trick is easily discovered.

1. The factitious and compounded ambergris appears generally quite uniform, and every where of the same colour and mixture, like a mass of pills or like dough ; a thing that never so equally holds in natural ambergris.
2. Such counterfeit ambergris generally softens sooner in a warm hand than the genuine.
3. But the best way of discovering such factitious ambergris is by the smell ; for, as the true smell of ambergris is entirely

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ely peculiar, so it cannot be so easily imitated by art, but  
at this or the other smell from the ingredients shall sometimes  
predominate, and so the cheat be discovered; and that the  
more easily, if you strew it on live coals, or melt it in a fil-  
ler ladle over a burning candle, or even a bit of it be held  
the naked flame, and you snuff its fume, and also attend  
its melting and taking fire: If it be genuine, it will then  
smell in melting, continue brown after melting, and at last dif-  
fuse an amber odour, tho' weaker than common amber: But  
if it be counterfeit, it will fail in these properties more or  
less: For, this latter will either not melt at all, or later or  
much sooner: In boiling and in its odour it will be different;  
it will either yield a something fetid, or more fragrant  
smell, or an entirely different smell from the fumes of true  
ambergris: And then after toasting and boiling, it will not  
continue of the same appearance as true ambergris, but be-  
come a coal, ashes or earth, and consequently exhibit a quite  
different appearance, even in respect of colour. 4. Should  
such adulterated ambergris occur as had no foreign smell,  
which notwithstanding happened to be compounded with  
something inodorous, as the moss of trees, and consequently  
should have no other scent than that of true ambergris, even  
then a cheat shall be easily discover'd: For, ambergris in  
this proportion shall smell too sparingly or weaker; and  
when on live coals it shall fume more copiously, if not sensi-  
bly stink; nor will it melt equally all over, nor in melting,  
as the genuine sort does; in fine, it shall not be so easily  
handled in the flame of a candle, nor burn incessantly till it  
be spent like a small candle, which yet genuine ambergris  
does. 5. Moreover, all factitious or adulterated ambergris  
solution shall appear quite different from the genuine.  
And lastly, in distillation in an open fire the counterfeit  
differs greatly; not to mention other proofs at present.  
Genuine ambergris, therefore, is a bitumen, and among all  
known species of bitumens it equals or comes nearest to  
amber, excepting in its hardness and transparency: It comes  
next to it in its composition, not only beyond the other bi-  
tumens, and all other minerals, but beyond all other things  
of what denomination soever they may be, as shall  
appear farther on.  
Tho' the term bitumen denote nothing other than some  
several mixt, yet most writers of natural history have con-  
fined it to this specific meaning, that such a mixt is properly a  
clammy

clammy fat of the earth, which easily burns; and this character perfectly agrees with ambergris: For, a fat or oil constitutes the basis or bulk of its essential parts, and one drachm thereof holds at least 2 scruples and  $\frac{1}{2}$  or  $\frac{5}{8}$  parts of oil; which account ambergris may not improperly be called fat: But as this fat or oil in ambergris is neither a vegetal nor animal, but plainly a mineral oil, it may hence with greatest propriety be called *a fat of the earth*: That ambergris is a clammy body or clammy fat in respect of other cannot be questioned, otherwise it might be easily ground and powdered, and not stick in such a manner to the pestle and mortar: In fine, that it readily takes flame, may be easly shewn, if you apply a bit of ambergris to a burning candle; consequently it has all the requisites and characteristics of bitumen.

That ambergris approaches nearest to amber of any subject, Dr. Neuman had learned by experience: For, 1. Ambergris by itself, and in a dry form, melted over a naked fire, consequently gradually exhaling, and also on a live coal, gives a strong amber scent; but if ambergris be with water committed to the fire, it will then in like manner melt like resin, and give the water in some measure an amber flavour, though does not mix with it; and this flavour is also easily taken by distillation; but the surrounding moisture prevents both resolution of the mixt and the evaporating of some essential particles; in a word, the amber smell does not this way discover itself, as when it is melted dry. 2. Ambergris, in the preparation of varnish, differs not from amber; if ambergris be melted, and dephlegmated linseed-oil be afterwards poured to it, or other somewhat oleaginous varnishes mixed with it. 3. And lastly, the most convincing experiment is the distillation of ambergris in an open fire; for this process every circumstance perfectly and nearly coincides with that for amber: Dr. Herman Nicolaus Grimm, who been for a long time in the *East-Indies*, gradually distilled a glass retort in an open fire an ounce of ambergris; there came over first, a phlegm, then a spirit, and the yellow oil and a little volatile salt; and there remained in the retort something like pitch; and he plainly tells us, the phlegm, oil, salt and remainder, had the same appearance, the same properties, as these very parts have in distillation of amber, only that the oil diffused a somewhat more fragrant smell, *Ephemera. Nat. Curios. Dec. II. Am-*

405. Dr. Neuman imitated this experiment on a drachm of ambergris, and found the very same things, with this only difference, that in his process, he had got no consistent remainder, but a little powder not exceeding a grain in weight; which neither affects the thing itself, nor Dr. Grimm's experiment; but the difference was probably owing to this, that he finished his process a little sooner, or at the last did not apply a sufficiently strong fire; for, in this case we obtain such a remainder; and consequently Dr. Neuman found that the whole body of ambergris may in a constant, violent degree be distilled and brought over; and moreover, he also obtained from a drachm of ambergris 2 scruples and  $\frac{1}{2}$  of oil, gr. of water, 2 gr. of salt, and about a grain weight of powder; the other two grains were lost by partly adhering to the sides of the retort and by partly evaporating: The oil and salt, as being the two principal parts, were of the same nature, as those of amber, consequently, not urino-volatile: From this proportion of its ingredients we may reflect that so small a quantity of salt and earth is however capable of containing a much greater portion of oleaginous parts, or of reducing them to a firm, tenacious and entirely dry state; also, that this circumstance in a greater measure agrees with amber, and consequently confirms its affinity even in this respect: All species of ambergris do not separate any pure salt, since at little it has is easily intangled in a copious oil.

Since, therefore, this precious matter, ambergris, exerts its principal virtue by its fragrancy; hence it has been used for a long time in perfuming; as in balsams, snuffs, dentifrices and electuaries for the teeth, powder for the hair, wash-balls and in perfuming clothes; and consequently, rather applied for efficacy than usefulness: Since likewise a variety of medicinal qualities was formerly ascribed to ambergris, as a cardiac, cephalic, apoplectic, bezoardic, nervine, &c. Hence it was sold in the shops, tho' formerly in greater plenty than now, in different preparations and compositions, yet more in the alchemical than chemical ones, and commonly in the form of a powder. But to wave these, and mention one only instance of a very common preparation still in use; viz. the simple essence of ambergris; in which there is nothing other than pure ambergris with its menstruum; and the rather as in the solution of it, he observed one or two circumstances, not to be met with in any author.

It has hitherto been received as a certain truth, that rectified spirit of wine does not of itself dissolve ambergris; and from this authors concluded that ambergris was neither vegetable nor animal; neither a rosin, nor an oleaginous fatty or resinous body, but a bituminous mineral; because rectified spirit of wine affects it very little, much less dissolves it, and only in the same manner as it affects asphaltum, amber and other bituminous mixts; from which indeed it may extract a little, but never make a perfect solution: And even Dr. Hoffman himself, *Observat. Physic. Chym. Select. Lib. I. Observ. XVIII. p. 67, &c.* affirms that 'the solution and extraction of all resinous bodies are easily performable in highly rectified spirit of wine; but, which is remarkable he says, that this does not hold in ambergris, which is a very difficult solution in this spirit: And because we observe that inflammable bodies, which grow out of the earth, as amber, jewish pitch, pit-coal, are also of more difficult solution, nor so readily mix with a highly spirituous liquor; hence it is we give in to those, who hold that ambergris is referable to bitumens, whose origin is from the earth, &c. And further he says; 'since ambergris therefore is of so difficult a solution, this undoubtedly is the reason that we have no genuine solution of it in the shops: For, generally they are wont to prepare it with musk, the essential oils of cinnamon and other oils, or even with civet; and thus indeed we are possessed of a very fragrant essence, and which is not without its virtue and use; but it partakes but little of the ambergris, which latter remains rather touch'd.' But Dr. Neuman has from his experience shewn this solution in spirit of wine, not only possible but easy, and it requires only some little management: Take highly rectified tartarised spirit of wine (tho' in case of necessity, the simple rectified spirit without tartar may equally answer) and put to it  $\frac{1}{2}$  part of pure, genuine ambergris cut small; put it in suet digestion, as gradually heats, so that the spirit or menstruum begin to boil; and this is all the art: Then a perfect solution ensues; for, he dissolved 2 scruples of ambergris in a ounce of spirits, and there remained undissolved in the bottom of the glass, that impurity only, which was not ambergris, but consists of earthy and other heterogeneous parts sometimes 2 grains, or only one grain in weight: For an experimental proof of this; set a glass, which is not quite filled, nor closely stopped, for fear of its bursting, over live coal

rectified oals or a burning candle; and the experiment succeeds, as soon as the spirits begin to boil: But if we use an inflammable oleaginous spirit as the menstruum, whether drawn over one or more oleaginous vegetable, or whether some essential oil be dropped into such highly rectified spirit of wine, then the solution succeeds the sooner; and for the rest, neither spirit of roses, nor any other spirit, which is drawn over, unless it be rich in oil, or impregnated with oleaginous particles, is here, with respect to the power of the solvent, any preference to highly rectified spirit of wine.

The following circumstances are remarkable. 1. That if highly rectified, simple spirit of wine without *alkali*, or even tartarised spirit of wine, newly drawn over salt of tartar, be taken; then indeed in the aforesaid proportion there is also a compleat solution; but this solution or essence of ambergris, it is called, is not sufficiently deep or high coloured.

The remainder is apparently no inconsiderable quantity, that the greatest, or a considerable part of the ambergris appears indissolved; tho' really, upon filtering the solution, and drying and weighing what remains in the filtrate, it prove very little in quantity, and is a pure powder or tender earth, provided the genuine ambergris be used. 3. If the spirit be not sufficiently dephlegmated, or a sufficient degree of heat not applied; in that case, there is either no solution at all, a bare and simple extraction only. 4. But if you use for the solution such tartarised spirit of wine, as has only stood infusion with salt of tartar, without afterwards drawing it over, then the solution is sooner and better tinged.

From these four circumstances, therefore, arise the following insectaries. 1. Since generally in the essence of ambergris, its colour or tincture is also sought for, many perhaps have taken it for a solution, because it appeared but little digested. 2. And that the less, as they observed so apparently precious remains; which at first made the Dr. himself think, there was little or no solution, till he had dried and weighed it when he found it not only very small in quantity, but a heterogeneous powder, that made no part of the solution or essence of ambergris. 3. Or if this solution has not succeeded to any one's mind; in that case, the spirits were not sufficiently rectified, or a due degree of heat was not applied; and probably many have thought, that as ambergris is a fragrant matter, if either digested or infused in a strong heat

heat, its best and most subtle parts would evaporate, and therefore a gentle degree of heat was to be applied; indeed all sorts of ambergris do not require such a vehement fire, and yet the solution succeed. 4. And lastly, it follows that if you either obtain or have a highly tinctured essence and besides the menstruum, you use nothing other than ambergris, such menstruum is always a spirit of wine tartarised by infusion; whence the tincture originally proceeds, from the ambergris, but from the fixt alkaline salt, and only heightened by the oleaginous parts of the ambergris. The certainty of this circumstance appears, if highly rectified, oleaginous spirit, of wine, be digested *per se* with salt-tartar only; for, hence arises a ruddy tincture, called tincture of tartar: If this spirit of wine be not oleaginous; neither the tincture of tartar will be so beautiful, and scarce tinged yellow, or it will be entirely without any tincture; but if you put to it a drop or two of essential oil, as anise, you will plainly see a more saturated tincture.

The conclusion of this matter is, therefore, this: 1. That if ambergris be treated with pure and highly rectified spirit of wine, or even with such as is tartarised by drawing over; then indeed there is a compleat solution, but without any peculiar tincture. 2. But if the same ambergris be treated in the same manner with spirit of wine tartarised by infusion; that then there is not only a solution, but also a tincture, which is chiefly owing to the salt of tartar, and consequently in respect of colour is rather to be consider'd a tincture of tartar. 3. But if it appears a little higher coloured than tincture of tartar, in that case the oily parts of the amber have in like manner contributed to the heightening the tincture, as if you had put one or more drops of another oil to another tincture of tartar, to which no ambergris was used. 4. If, therefore, the alcalisate spirit of roses, made either by fermentation or even by repeatedly drawing it over roses, be applied as a solvent in the preparation of essence of ambergris, and with it an excellent essence be prepared, are not hence to conclude, as if spirit of roses alone were peculiar and appropriated solvent of ambergris: For he as was already said, there is some alkaline salt, as also some oleaginous parts; and from these the tincture arises in the same manner, as if tincture of tartar were prepared from salt of tartar with oleaginous spirit of wine, without ambergris and without roses; and the solution of amber-

ways proceeds, as if it were a solution with another tarised spirit of wine, or even with what is highly rectified simple, without salt of tartar.

But that the essence or solution of ambergrease, prepared in proper manner with good spirit of roses, diffuses a much longer and more grateful odour, than that prepared with simple spirit of wine, is entirely natural. For, 1. Spirit of roses *per se*, has not only a strong but a fragrant odour, whereas the simple spirit of wine has almost none at all: 2. It is known that ambergrease is naturally disposed not to yield any peculiar colour; but so soon as some other thing, naturally fragrant mixed therewith; that then the odour and fragrancy of ambergrease is, as it were, roused, excited, and really exalted; and this is the case in the solution of ambergrease with spirits of roses.

The officinal essence of ambergrease may, therefore, not improperly be prepared with alcalisate spirit of roses on the account of heightening the odour; but as there are many, who cannot bear either the smell or taste of roses, hence it will be proper to prepare this essence with highly rectified and alcalisate spirit of wine: But that this tincture may be sufficiently efficacious, and the solution the sooner accomplish'd, and notwithstanding its colour, it will be proper doubly to alcalisate the solvent or spirit of wine; as first prepare a pretty good tartarised spirit of wine by drawing it over, or let a genuine highly rectified spirit of wine be several times distill'd on a fixt alkaline salt; and let it be again returned on pure and calcined fix'd alkaline salt, and digested for some time; at length decant it, and use it as a solvent for the essence or solution of ambergrease; and then this spirit, in respect of its solutive virtue, will act in the same manner as the best and most precious spirit of roses; nay if the spirit of roses was neither tartarised nor alcalisate, it will render the preference doubtful.

Etmuller somewhere writes, *opera Pharm. Chym. in Schrodoro dilucid. p. 79.* that 'ambergrease is made to ferment with roses, and hence the *spiritus rosarum ambratus* may be made, which is to be preferred to pearls, as the greatest cardiac and comforter': But since water, as the common solvent of bodies that are to be fermented, does not in the least touch ambergrease; and that a true fermentation cannot possibly happen to roses on the part of ambergrease; it is probable this is a mistake of Etmuller's; into which he was led by being told, that a grateful spirit is made

made with ambergrease and spirits of roses well ferment'd and rectified : That the fragrant spirit of roses, even without ambergris, is preferable to pearls, only on account of its fragrance, is not to be doubted ; for, as a cardiac Dr. Neuman prefers crabs-eyes, nay common oyster-shells to pearls ; but th<sup>t</sup> by the bye.

It now only remains to prove that an inflammable oleaginous spirit promotes the solution of ambergrease, as may be shewn to the eye : Take highly rectified inflammable spirit, and throw into it bits of ambergris ; if you observe them not to dissolve then pour in a few drops only of any pure, essential, distilled oil, free of all expressed oil, and the experiment manifestly succeeds in a short time : The reason is, that such oils are solvents of ambergrease ; since the experiment always succeeded not only with the various aromatic, fragrant, essential oils, as with that of mint, lavender, &c. but with the *Italian Olio di adro*, with the resinous oil of terpentine, as also with the pure rectified, bituminous, oil of amber, which is of the same family with itself, whereas with expressed oil, as that of almonds there was not the least solution or extraction ; from which appears the more evidently that *Schroder's essence of amber* grease, by first digesting and expressing the ambergrease with oil of almonds, and afterwards drawing highly rectified spirit of wine over what is thus expressed, rather hinders than promotes a solution.

Dr. Neuman, with a view to the solution of ambergrease made trials with dulcified spirits, both alcaline and acid ; and he infused and digested it with the dulcified spirit of vitriol, nitre, and salt ; as also with dulcified alcaline spirits, as of urine, or the vinous spirit of sal-ammoniac, as it is called, with quick lime, and prepared salt of tartar ; but these extracted little or nothing, and would not entirely dissolve it : In the infusion with dulcified spirit of vitriol there happened something singular ; this spirit, with the little it extracted, form'd some saline grains, which settled to the side of the glass wherein the infusion was made.

That white viscid matter, of the appearance of tallow, which is commonly wont to precipitate from the solution or essence of ambergrease ; M. Lemery takes to be wax ; and from this circumstance he would prove, that ambergrease is nothing other than wax.

But if this white matter happen to separate, then in that case the Dr. commonly observ'd the three following circumstances

about

ut it, which if they are not conjointly absolutely requisite  
he precipitation, yet at least one of them is so for either the  
ence or solution as stood in a glass that was not quite full, but  
f or a third part empty ; or the glass has not been stopt so  
ht but that the most subtle spirits have insensibly exhaled ;  
l therefore in proportion to that exhalation a little of the so-  
ion is again precipitated ; lastly, the solution has still stood  
r some part of the indissolved ambergrease. For if the solu-  
n be immediately decanted from its remainder, and a glass  
quite fill'd up with it, and stopt very tight, to prevent its  
porating, then none of it precipitates so soon, nor does any such  
itish matter appear ; consequently the evaporation of this  
y subtile spirit is the true and principal cause, that it again  
cipitates in its flight what it held before dissolved.

The whitish matter which M. Lemery takes for wax, is  
ing other than a sort of depurated, or reduced perfect am-  
grease ; which appears from treating the whitish matter  
the same manner as the ambergrease was before with  
only rectified spirits of wine or any other solvent made  
of for the latter ; whereas if the trial be made with  
t, and highly rectified spirits of wine, they shall not  
olve the wax so readily, nor incorporate with it in the same  
ner. Not to mention other circumstances at present.

*Account of Experiments made on Ambergrease ; by Mr.  
John Browne, and M. Godfrey Hanckewitz, Phil. Trans.  
N° 435. p. 437. Translated from the Latin.*

H E Royal Society ordered Mr. Brown and M. Hancke-  
witz carefully to repeat Dr. Neuman's process on amber-  
se. Mr. Browne judging that the Dr. had in his experiment  
de use of too small a quantity of ambergrease, namely, a  
gle drachm, took an ounce and an half, together with very  
white cimolian earth, (which he always makes use of for  
tracting the salt from amber) reduced to a powder, and put-  
ng them into a retort he exposed them to different degrees  
heat ; he first obtain'd a pellucid phlegm like the purest  
er, then a deep spirit like beer, after that there came  
an oil, of a deeper colour, and last of all, with a very  
ong fire, he obtain'd a thick black balsam. The oil and  
sam he owns, had the same smell with those got from am-  
ber, but without any acid volatile salt, nor did the spirit from  
bergrease ferment with alkali's, as that from amber does  
ich abounds with such an acid salt : He takes that volatile  
acid

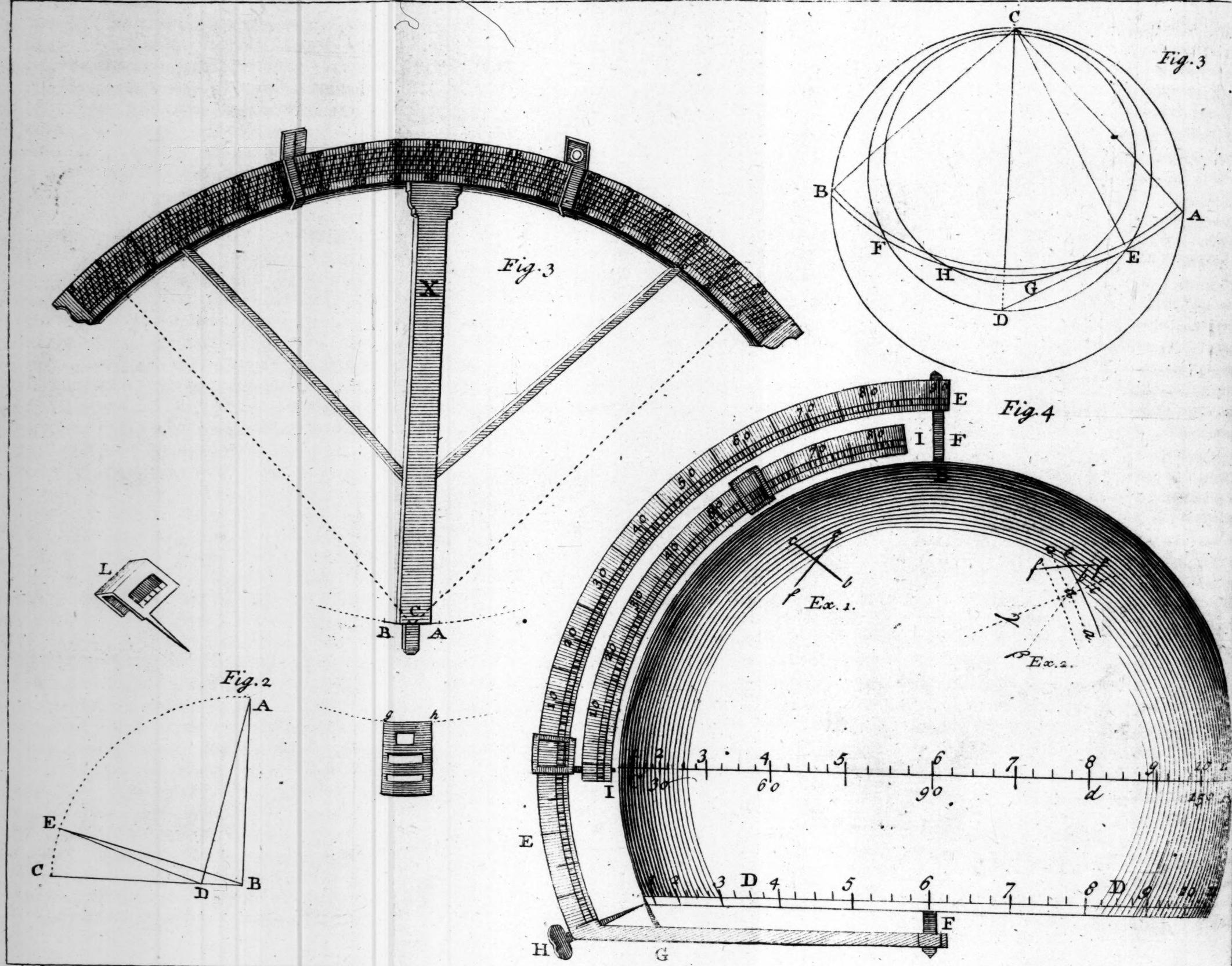
acid to be the peculiar criterion of amber. The remains amber after distillation, are hard, black, and like jet ; but after distilling the ambergrease, the earth only remained ting black ; and therefore since he could not perceive any acidity or volatility throughout the whole process, he leaves it undetermined, whether ambergrease be an animal excrement or not but he observes that all its grateful odour, is entirely lost by the gentlest fire.

M. Hanckewitz distill'd in a retort 2 ounces of ambergrease mixt with double the quantity of very pure white sand and after that, he distilled in like manner other 2 ounces and in each process he got a limpid oil, and the remainder was bituminous : The oil rectified *per se* yielded a phlegm of grateful subacid taste, like a weaker vinegar, and after that there came over a limpid, balsamick, bituminous oil, like petroleum : He distill'd half an ounce of ambergrease *per se*, and with a pretty moderate fire he obtain'd the same things. After distilling the ambergrease to the greatest degree of dryness he urged the remainder with the strongest fire, and at last there remained 3 grains of a white saline earth, that caused moderate effervescence with acids, or runs *per deliquium* when exposed to a moist air, since he could obtain no volatile salt, nor phosphorus from the coal or blackish remainder of the 2 processes, he concludes with the greatest assurance, that ambergrease is no animal substance, or excrement : For, phosphorus may be got from the excrements of all known animals, as has abundantly shewn in *Phil. Trans.* N° 428. He therefore takes ambergrease for a bitumen, nearly approaching to the nature of amber ; but not for a genuine amber ; since it does not yield an acid volatile salt, like that got from amber.

He again repeated the experiment with equal parts of ambergrease and powder'd glass ; because there might arise suspicion of some alcaline earth adhering to the sand, which might have absorbed whatever quantity of acid were got from the ambergrease ; but the process exhibited again the same things, only that the phlegm had the taste of a neutral, not an acid salt ; and after the fire had fus'd the glass powder, the bituminous remainder free from the mass of glass lay upon it like a black coal, and spread itself over all the side of the retort up to the very neck, like fine and shiny black flowers or flakes.

All controversy about these experiments may be easily determined, if we consider ambergrease as a mixt consisting

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veral adventitious matters, like other minerals, and not as a simple pure body like metals : For no ore of any metal, as lead, or instance, doth in all its parts exhibit an equal quantity of metal, or particular mixt mineral ; in like manner the various parts of ambergrise do not contain the same quantity of that acid salt ; as may be seen in M. Godfrey's experiments, in one of which the phlegm he got had a subacid taste, the undoubted sign of that salt ; and in another it had the taste of a neutral salt ; and that small portion of it, examined by Dr. Neuman, contained more of that salt than any other. Besides, the more that salt is entangled in the oil, the more difficultly is it separated therefrom. In the same manner it happened in some experiments on quick lime, according to Dr. Neuman in a letter to M. Godfrey, where he writes ; that they succeeded differently in *England* and in *France* ; whence it happened that certain *Frenchman*, upon repeating the same experiments, had succeeded in a certain manner in *England*, and finding that they did not answer in the same manner in *France*, affirmed that they were entirely false. Besides, Dr. Neuman, in another letter to Sir Hans Sloane, says, that he would not be understood as meaning p. 421. that ambergrise is really amber, but only a genus thereof, or a bitumen nearly approaching to amber, which was the reason that the antients called both *ambar*, the one *citrina*, and the other *odorifera*. Again he adds, as to the acid volatile salt, of which he obtained a grain or two, that he could not be deceived ; for, it dissolved in water as common salt does, and it tinged syrup of violets of a red colour, as other acids do ; and is volatile, because it ascends in Distillation.

*An Account of Mr. Thomas Godfrey's Improvement of Davis's Quadrant, transferred to the Mariner's Bow, by Mr. Logan. Phil. Transl. N° 435. p. 441.*

THOMAS GODFREY of Philadelphia, having, under the greatest disadvantages, made himself master of the principles of astronomy and opticks, as well as other parts of mathematical science, applied his thoughts to consider the instruments made use of in that momentous part of business, navigation. He saw that on the knowledge of the latitude and longitude of the place a ship is in, the lives of thousands of useful subjects, as well as valuable cargoes, continually depend ; that for finding the first of these, certain and easy methods are furnished by nature, if observation be duly made :

But *Davis's quadrant*, the instrument generally made use of by *British Navigators* (tho' seldom by foreigners) he perceived was attended with this inconveniency, that the observer must bring the shade or spot of light from the sun, and the rays from the horizon, to coincide exactly on the fiducial edge of the horizontal vane: That tho' this can be done in moderate weather, and seas, with a cleat sky, and when the sun is not too high, without any great difficulty; yet in other cases it requires more accuracy than can in some junctures possibly be applied, and more time than can be allowed for it. In *European latitudes*, or to those neareſt the northern tropick, when the sun is in the southern signs, and near the meridian, he rises and falls but slowly: Yet in voyages to the *East and West-Indies*, of which a great many, especially to the latter, are made, he is at noon, often and for many days together, in or near the zenith; and when approaching to or leaving it, he rises and falls, when he has declination, faster than even at the horizon: For, it is well known to persons acquainted with the sphere, that when his diurnal course takes the zenith, he there rises and falls a whole degree or 60 minutes in the space of 4 minutes of time: So that the observer has but one minute, to come within 15 minutes of the truth in his latitude: While in a middle altitude, as 45 degrees he is at noon above 5 minutes and  $\frac{1}{4}$  in time, in rising or falling one single minute of space, the odds between which is more than 80 to 1. And yet, perhaps, no parts of the world require more exactness in taking the latitude than is necessary in voyages to the *West Indies*: For, it is owing to the difficulty of it, that vessels have so frequently missed the island of *Barbadoes*, and when got to the leeward of it have been obliged to run down a thousand miles farther to *Jamaica*; from whence they can scarce work up again in the space of several weeks, against the constant trade winds; and therefore, generally decline to try for, or attempt it.

But farther, as the latitude cannot be found by any other method that our mariners are generally acquainted with, than by the sun or a star on the meridian: In a cloudy sky, when the sun can but now and then be seen, and that only between the openings of the clouds for very short intervals, which those who use the sea know frequently happens: As also in high tempestuous seas, when tho' the sun should appear, the observer can scarce by any means hold his feet; it would certainly be of vast advantage to have an instrument, by which an observation could also be snatch'd, as it were, or taken in much less time

time than is generally required in the use of the common quadrant.

Thomas Godfrey, therefore, considering this, applied himself to find out some contrivance, by which, the necessity of bringing the rays from the sun and those from the horizon to coincide (which is the most difficult part of the work) on one particular point or line from the center, might be remov'd. In order to which he consider'd, that by the 21. 3d. *Euc. Elem.* all angles at the periphery of a circle, subtended by the same segment within it are equal on whatever part of the circumference the angular point falls; and therefore, if instead of a quadrant, a semicircle were graduated into 90 degrees only, accounting every two degrees but one; this would effectually answer: For then, if an arch of the same circle were placed at the end of the diameter of the instrument, every part of that opposite arch would equally serve for taking the coincidence of the rays abovementioned: But such an instrument would manifestly be attended with great inconveniences; for, it would in great altitudes be much more unmanageable, and the vanes could not be framed to stand, as they always ought, perpendicular to the rays: He, therefore, farther resolv'd to try whether a curve could not be found to be placed at the centre of the quadrant, which would, at least for a length sufficient to catch the coincidence of the rays, with ease fully answer the intention.

A curve, that in all its parts would, in geometrical strictness, effect this, cannot be in nature, any more than that one and the same point can be found for a centre to different circles, which are not concentric: It is certain that every arch on the limb may have a circle that will pass through the centre, and be a locus or geometrical place for the angle made by that arch to fall on; but then every arch has a different one from all others, as in fig. 1. Plate III. Let A B C be the quadrant, and A B, E F, G H be taken as arches of it; circles, drawn through each two of these respectively, and through the centre C at a third point, will manifestly be such loci or places: For, every pair of these points stand in a segment of their own circle, as well as on a segment of the quadrant, and therefore by the cited 21. 3d *Elem.* the angles standing on these first segments will every where be equal at the periphery of their respective circles, and their radius will always be equal to half the segment of half the arch on the quadrant: For, in the circle C E D F, for instance, the angle C E D is right, because in a semicircle, C E is the radius of the quadrant, E D the tangent

of the angle D C E =  $\frac{1}{2}$  the arch E F, and C D is the secant of the same, equal to the diameter of the circle C E D F, and therefore its radius is half that secant.

Now from the figure it is plain, that in very small arches the radius of their circular place will be half the radius of the quadrant, i. e. putting this radius = 10, the other will be 5. And the radius for the arch of 90, the highest to be used in the quadrant, will be the square root of half the square of the radius = sine of  $45^\circ$  = 7. 071, and the arches at the centre drawn by these two radii, are the extremes, the medium of which is 6.0355: And if a circular arch be drawn with the radius  $\frac{1}{2}$ , part of the length of it, i. e. in an instrument of a inches radius, the length of one inch on each side of the centre affording two inches in the whole, to catch the coincidence of the rays on, which must be own'd is abundantly sufficient; the error at the greatest variation of the arches, and at the extremity of these two inches, will not much exceed one minute.

But in fixing the curvature or radius of this central arch something farther than a medium between the extremes in the radius is to be consider'd: For, in small arches the variation is very small, but in greater, it equally increases, as in fig. 2, where it appears, the difference between the angles A B C and A D C is much greater than the difference between E B C and E D C, tho' both are subtended by the same line BD: For their differences are the angles B A D, and B E D. Therefore, this inequality was likewise to be consider'd; and compounding both together, Thomas Godfrey pitch'd on the ratio of 7 to 11 for the radius of the curve to the radius of the instrument, which is 6. 3636 to 10. But upon farther consideration he now concludes on  $6\frac{4}{5}$ ; and a curve of this radius of an inch on each side of the centre to an instrument of a inches radius, or of  $\frac{1}{2}$  of the radius whatever it be, will in case whatever, as he has himself carefully computed it, produce an error of above 57 seconds; and it is very well known that navigators do (as they very safely may) in their voyages entirely slight a difference of one minute in latitude.

This radius is the true one for the circular place to an arch of  $77^\circ 15'$ , and the variation from it is nearly as great at 4 degrees as at any arch below it; the greatest below being about 44 degrees, which is owing to the differences express'd in fig. 2, and not to those of the curvatures or circular places. It is this variation of 57 seconds arises only, when the spot or coinciden-

idence falls at the extremity of the horizontal sight or vane, a whole inch (in an instrument of 20 inches radius) from the centre, and then only in the altitudes or arches of about 44 or 45 degrees. And in these, at the distance of  $\frac{1}{2}$  an inch from the centre, the variation is but  $\frac{1}{4}$  so much, *viz.* about 14"; and at  $\frac{1}{4}$  of an inch not 4"; at the centre it is precisely true. As, therefore, an observation may be taken with it in  $\frac{1}{4}$  of the time, that *Davis's* quadrant (in which 3 things must be brought to meet) in a general way requires: Considering this and the vast importance of such dispatch, in the case of great altitudes, or tempestuous seas, or beclouded skies, it is presumed the instrument thus made will be judged preferable to all others of the kind, hitherto known. Some masters of vessels, who sail from Philadelphia to the *West Indies*, have got of them made as well as they can be done there; and have found so great an advantage in the facility and in the ready use of them, in those southerly latitudes, that they reject all others. And it can scarce be doubted, but when the instrument becomes more generally known, it may more universally obtain in practice.

In 1730, after *Thomas Godfrey* was satisfied in this improvement, he applied himself to think of the other, *viz.* the reflecting instrument by speculums, for a help in the case of longitude, tho' it is also useful in taking altitudes; and one of these, as has been abundantly proved by the maker, and those who had it with them, was taken to sea, and there us'd in observing the latitude the winter of that year. In May, 1732 Mr. *Logan* transmitted an account of it to Dr. *Halley*. This, on his part, is all the merit he has to claim in either of these instruments.

Mr. *Logan* only adds, that the bow had best be an arch of about 100 degrees, well graduated, and number'd both ways; the radius to be of 20 or 24 inches; the curve at the centre to be  $\frac{1}{20}$  of the radius on each side, that is  $\frac{1}{10}$  of it in the whole; the radius of that curve  $1\frac{1}{2}$  parts of the radius of the instrument; that the glass for the solar vane should not be less, but rather larger, than a silver shilling, with its vertex very exactly set: And that the utmost care be taken to place the middle of the curve at the centre exactly perpendicular to the line or radius of 45 degrees. As the observer must likewise take care, that the 2 vanes on the limb be kept nearly equi-distant from that degree; to which he only adds, that it may be best to give the horizontal vane only one aperture, and not two. The rest he supposes may be left to the workmen.

*Note,*

Note, that the radius of the quadrant being divided into equal parts, the centre  $\times$  (Fig. 3.) of the curvature of the horizontal vane, A B, must be  $\frac{1}{12}$  of those parts from the centre C of the quadrant. The breadth A B or g b of that vane should be  $\frac{1}{12}$  of the whole radius, that is  $\frac{1}{12}$  on each side of the centre C.

*The Description and Use of an Instrument for taking the Latitude of a Place at any time of the Day; by Mr. Richard Graham. Phil. Trans. N° 435. p. 450.*

THE necessity of finding the latitude a ship is in, is well known to be insisted on; frequent opportunities observing the latitude must, consequently, be of very great advantage to navigation. The method usually practis'd is taking the sun or stars meridian altitude or zenith distance: in this case, if the sun do not shine but for some small time only before and after noon, tho' it be clear all the rest of the day it is of no use for this purpose: In 1728 Mr. Faro propos'd a method for finding the latitude, from 2 or more observations of the sun, or stars, at any time, the distance of the said observations in time being given by a watch: But as his method requires a vast number of computations, and a great deal of skill in spherical trigonometry, it has very seldom been made use of, and never but by good Mathematicians. The instrument here described will answer the same end, and has the following advantages; viz. 1. It may be very easily understood by seamen. 2. It immediately shews the latitude of the place. 3. It gives the time of day at sea, when no other instrument can. 4. It may be made as large; and consequently as accurate as is desir'd.

The description of the instrument is as follows; A B C (Fig. 4. Plate III.) represents part of the hemisphere of a large globe (half the globe, and the part below the tropic, are cut off, that it may take up the less room) A C half the equator divided into 12 hours above, and 180 degrees below, and subdivided into minutes, as is likewise the lower tropic D D'; E E' a moveable graduated meridian, turning on the axis F F'; G G' an index to fix it (by means of the screw H) to any hour; I I' a circular beam-compass, the centre I is to be fixt on the meridian to any degree and minute of declination, by the method commonly call'd *Nomius's* divisions; k the point for drawing arches, which is likewise fixt to any degree and minute by the same method. As the meridian is at some distance from the

globe,

be, L is a piece of brass to fix on the meridian, marked with Nonius's divisions, with a point reaching down to the intersection of the arches, by which means the distance of the said intersection from the equator, or its latitude, may be found. The degrees and minutes may likewise be shewn by diagonal lines.

The use of the instrument is, as follows.

*Proposition 1.* From 2 observations of the height of the sun, distance of the said observations in time, being given by a watch, as also the declination of the sun; to find the latitude of place and hour of the day.

When the ship is at rest, that is, at anchor, or in a calm; it is to have little or no progressive motion.

*Case 1.* Suppose the sun in the equator, on the day of observation: Fix the center of the beam-compass at 0 degree, at the equator; and move the point k to the zenith distance (the complement of the altitude taken by the usual instruments) and from any hour as from C, describe an arch of circle with the said point, as bc (Ex. I. Fig. 4.) Suppose 8 hours pass by your watch, you have another observation; move the meridian 8 hours farther to d and fix it there; and with the zenith distance then observed, describe another arch as ef; the point where it cuts the former is the place of observation; its distance taken on the meridian from the equator shews its latitude; and the minutes reckon'd on the equator in the meridian to C and d (the times of observation) shew at those hours were.

*Case 2.* When the sun has declination. Fix the centre of beam-compass on the meridian, to the proper degree of declination for the day of observation, and proceed as before.

*Case 3.* If the observations are at a greater distance than hours, but in the same day. Make use of the complement to 24 hours of the distance in time, and take the declination on the contrary, or lower side of the equator; and instead of the zenith distances, take the nadir distances, or meridians, increased by 90 degrees.

Thus, you will find the latitude and time of each observation from midnight. In this case the beam-compass must stand to more than 90 degrees.

*Case 4.* If the observations are more than a day asunder; for instance a day and two hours, namely 26 hours. Place the centre of the beam-compass two hours farther than it was the day before; but in different declinations, according to table of declination for the several days.

*Case*

*Case 3.* When the observations are made by a star. The centre of the beam-compass must be set to the declination of the star; then proceed as before. To find the hour in this case, the right ascension must likewise be given.

*Scholium.* The same method may be useful at land, where no meridian observation offers.

2. When the ship is in motion.

*Case 1.* Suppose the sun in the equator; the distance between the 2 observations 8 hours, as before; and the arch  $cab$  (*Ex. 2. Fi. 4.*) described by the zenith distance of the first observation, from the centre  $C$ ; and the angle  $cab$ , 40 degrees is the angle between the ship's way, and the azimuth of the sun continued (given by the azimuth compass) and that during the 8 hours, the ship has made one degree or 60 minutes from  $a$  to  $b$ , or from the sun; then as the radius is to the sine of  $cab$ , 40 degrees; so is  $ab$ , 60 minutes, to  $ac$ , minutes: Add 46 minutes to the zenith distance  $Ca$ ; with  $k$ , the point of the beam-compasses set at that distance, describe the arch  $cbe$ ; then with the zenith distance of the last observation, whose centre is  $d$ , draw the arch  $ff$ ; the point where it cuts the arch  $cbe$  is the place where the sun was last; and its distance taken on the meridian from the equator shews its latitude; the minutes reckon'd on the equator from the meridian to  $d$  (the time of the last observation) shew the hour, or its distance from 12 o'clock.

*Case 2.* If the ship had sailed from  $a$  to  $\beta$ , or towards the sun: The cosine of the angle  $\beta\alpha\gamma$ , or of the angle between the ship's way and the sun, must be subtracted from the zenith distance of the first observation.

*N. B.* Only the 2 arches  $cbe$ ,  $ff$ , are to be drawn on the globe, the rest being added here, to shew the reason of construction.

*Case 3.* To find the latitude of the first place. From the equator, with a pair of compasses, take the distance sail'd in minutes; and with one foot in the intersection of the arch  $cbe$ ,  $ff$ , the place found before, put the other in the arch  $aaa$ , the zenith distance of the first observation; and in this instance, on the left hand of the azimuth of the sun, is the place sought; and its distance taken on the meridian from the equator, shews the latitude; and the minutes reckon'd on the equator from the meridian to  $C$ , the time of the first observation, shew the hour.

The interval in time, or the degree between the 2 places shewn by the index  $G$ , is the difference of longitude.

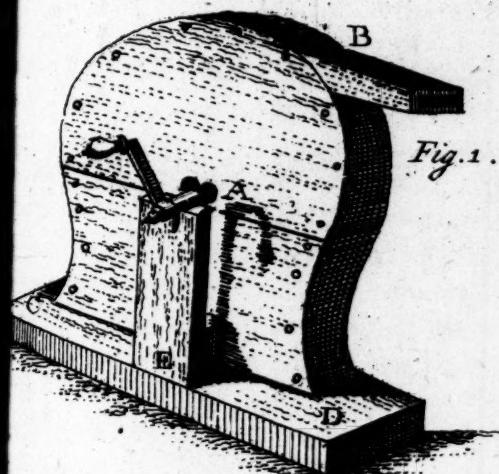


Fig. 1.

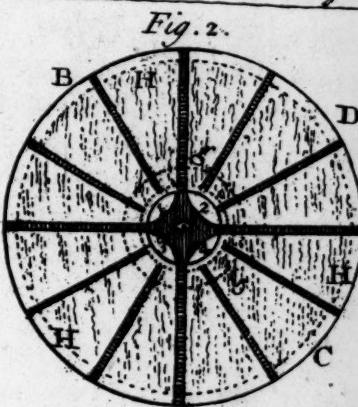


Fig. 2.

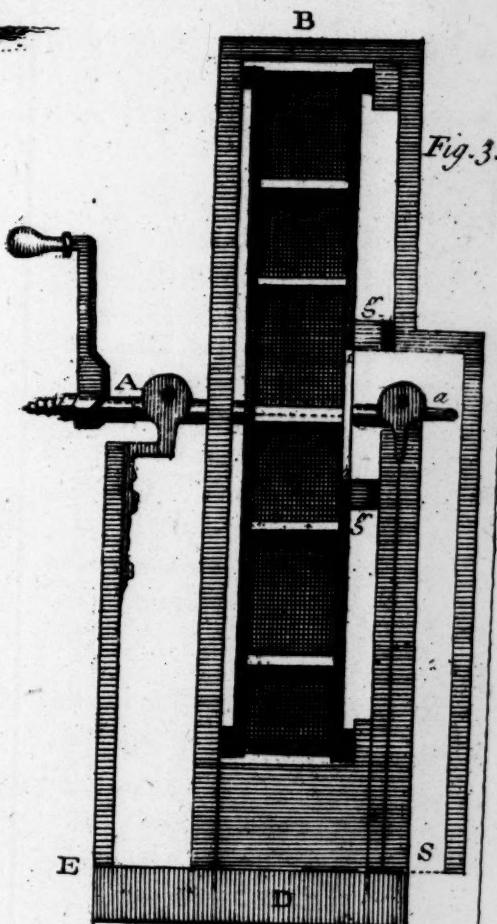


Fig. 3.

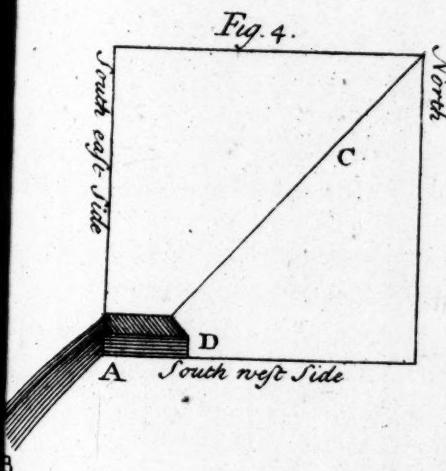


Fig. 4.

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*N. B.* Those observations are best, whose arches cross each other almost at right angles.

*Prop. 2.* The zenith distance of 2 stars, observed at the same time, their declination and right ascension being known; to find the latitude of the place of observation.

Fix the centre of the beam-compass to the declination of either of the stars, and with the zenith distance of that star describe an arch: Move the meridian as many hours farther, as is the difference of right ascension of the other star; and fix the centre of the beam-compass to the declination of it; and with its zenith distance cross the first arch: The intersection shews the latitude of the place of observation; and likewise the distance of the right ascension of the zenith from that of either of the stars; by which means the hour may be known.

If a celestial globe be made use of, then place the centre of the beam-compass over the several stars.

The latitude and hour being given, the variation of the compass is easily known.

*N. B.* In order to draw arches on the globe, rub some powder'd black lead on a piece of paper; lay the side which is blacked next the globe, where you imagine the intersection of the arches will be: Then draw them on the clean side with the point of the beam-compass; and they will appear on the globe; and if the globe be well varnish'd, they may be rubbed out with bread, or wash'd out with water.

As altitudes at sea are now readily taken with great exactness, by the quadrant, invented by Mr. Hadley; and as he said altitudes are the principles, on which the operations above described are founded; the previous use of that quadrant cannot but be of the utmost importance to those who shall have occasion for this instrument.

*An Abstract of Meteorological Diaries, with Remarks thereon; by Dr. Derham.* Phil. Trans. N° 435. p. 458.

THE following meteorological observations were made at Hall in Saxony, by M. Joach. Langen, Ann. 1729; and in 1728 at Goslar in Lower Saxony, by Dr. Job. Conrad Trumphins; at Wittemberg in Saxony, by Dr. Weidler; at Naples by Dr. Cyriillus; at Sourbwick in Northamptonshire, by Mr. Lynn; and in Sweden, at Lund, Bettina, Upsal and Bygdea, to which the illustrious observers have added observations from Swenæker, in Westro-Gothia (Lat.  $58^{\circ} 10'$ ) by

M. Vassenuus, minister in *Wassenda*; at *Wisingæ*, by *Magnus Oxelgren*, Lecturer of the College; at *Risinge* in *Ostro-Goth*, by *Sueno Laurelius*, Pastor and Provost there. At *Stockholm* (Lat.  $59^{\circ} 30'$ ) by *Job. Backman*, Citizen; at *Hudickswald Helsingorum*, by *Olave Broman*, Pastor there; at *Hernæsand* and *Angermann*, by *Jac. Renmarck*, Lecturer of the Mathematics; at *Læfanger* and *Umea* (Lat.  $63^{\circ} 43'$ ) by *Bern. Ask*, student-of Divinity; and at *Torneao* in *Westro-Goth* (Lat.  $65^{\circ} 43'$ ) by *Abr. Fougt*, Pastor there.

A Table of the highest, mean, and lowest, barometrical stations, in 1728.

	JANUARY.			FEBRUARY.		
	High	Mean	Low	High	Mean	Low
Hall	29.4 $\frac{1}{2}$	28.7 $\frac{1}{2}$	28.1 $\frac{1}{2}$	29. 7	28.10	28. 2
Goslar						
Wittemberg	30.2 $\frac{1}{2}$	29.5 $\frac{3}{4}$	28. 9	30.2 $\frac{1}{2}$	29. 9	29. 3
Naples	29.88	29.50	29.12	29.88	29.71	29.54
Southwick	30.08	29.37	28.67	30.10	29.84	29.58
Lunden	30.20	29.46	28.72	30.22	29.52	28.82
Swenæker	30.36	29.68	29. 0	30.35	29.32	28.29
Risinge	30.20	29.55	28.90	30.20	29.52	28.85
Bettina	30.80	30.10	29.40	30.80	30.12	29.45
Upsale	30.46	29.85	29.24	30.50	29.86	29.23
Hudickswald	30.50	29.75	29.01	30.56	29.89	29.22
Hernœland	30.60	29.95	29.30	30.50	29.79	29.08
Eygdea.	30.30	29.75	29.20	30.40	29.67	28.94
MARCH.						
Hall	29. 2	28.9 $\frac{1}{2}$	28. 5	Risinge	29.67	29. 0
Goslar	31. 3	30.10	30. 6	Bettina	30.21	29.55
Wittemberg	29.9 $\frac{7}{8}$	29. 5	29.1 $\frac{1}{3}$	Upsale	30.00	29.40
Naples	29.88	29.63	29.28	Hudickswald	30.24	29.52
Southwick	29.88	29.35	28.2	Hernœland	30.25	29.47
Lunden	29.81	29.16	28.51	Eygdea.	30.28	25.39
Swenæker	29.73	29.05	28.37			

APRIL

# ROYAL SOCIETY.

	APRIL.			MAY.		
	High	Mean	Low	High	Mean	Low
Hall	28.11	28. 8	28. 5	29.1 $\frac{1}{2}$	28. 8	28.3 $\frac{1}{2}$
Goslar	31. 4	30.11	30. 6	31. 5	31.0 $\frac{1}{2}$	30. 8
Wittemberg	30. 0	29.4 $\frac{1}{2}$	28. 9	30. 1	29. 8	29.2 $\frac{1}{2}$
Naples	29.88	29.75	29.63	29.80	29.71	29.63
Southwick	29.94	29.48	29.03	29.96	29.51	29.07
Lunden	29.73	29.22	28.51	30.02	29.57	29.12
Swenæker	29.83	29.05	28.27	30.07	29.26	28.45
Risinge	29.70	29.06	28.43	29.95	29.35	28.75
Bettna	30.22	29.63	29.05	30.50	29.90	29.30
Upsale	30.00	29.49	28.98	30.29	29.73	29.17
Hudickswald	30.10	29.60	29.10	30.38	29.79	29.20
Hernœfand	30. 7	29.50	29.07	30.20	29.72	29.24
Bygdea.	29.80	29.40	29.00	30.10	29.62	29.14

	JUNE.			JULY.		
	High	Mean	Low	High	Mean	Low
Hall	29.0 $\frac{3}{4}$	28. 8	28. 3	28.11	28. 8	28. 5
Goslar	31. 4	31.0 $\frac{1}{2}$	30. 9	31. 3	30.11	30. 7
Wittemberg	30. 0	29.8 $\frac{1}{2}$	29. 5	30. 4	29. 7	29.3 $\frac{1}{2}$
Naples	29.88	29.75	29.93	29.80	29.71	29.63
Southwick	29.93	29.70	29.27	29.95	29.57	29.20
Lunden	29.83	29.52	29.21	29.73	29.38	29.02
Swenæker	29.93	29.49	29.06	30.10	29.19	28.28
Risinge	29.70	29.35	29.00	29.50	29.15	28.80
Bettna	30.20	29.89	29.58	30.12	29.66	29.20
Upsale	30. 9	29.73	29.38	29.91	29.55	29.20
Hudickswald	30.96	30.09	29.22	30.05	29.61	29.18
Hernœfand	30.10	29.71	29.32	29.97	29.53	29.10
Bygdea.	29.96	29.42	28.88	29.85	29.42	29.00

## AUGUST.

	High	Mean	Low
Hall	29. 0	28.8 $\frac{1}{2}$	28. 5
Goslar	31. 5	31. 0	30.9 $\frac{1}{2}$
Wittemberg	30. $\frac{1}{2}$	29. 8	29.4 $\frac{1}{2}$
Naples	29.88	29.80	29.72
Southwick	30.04	29.51	28.98
Lunden	29.92	29.37	28.82
Swenæker	29.74	29.19	28.64

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## AUGUST.

	High	Mean	Low
Risinge	29.57	28.86	28.15
Bettina	30.10	29.56	29.02
Upsale	29.91	29.45	29.00
Hudickswald	29.90	29.48	29.07
Hernæsfand			
Bygdea	29.96	29.58	29.20
Torneao	29.85	29.56	29.27

## SEPTEMBER.

## OCTOBER.

	High	Mean	Low	High	Mean	Low
Hall	29. 1	28.10	28. 8			
Goslar	31. 5	31.02	30. 8	31. 5	31. 0	30. 6
Wittemberg	30. 0	29.73	29. 3	30. 2	29. 6	29. 2
Naples	29.88	29.54	29.21	29.80	29.71	29.52
Southwick	30.02	29.53	29.04	29.98	29.31	28.64
Lunden	29.91	29.45	29.00	30.12	29.51	28.90
Swenæker	29.93	29.39	28.86	30.26	29.55	28.84
Risinge	29.95	29.32	28.70	30.16	29.43	28.70
Bettina	30.38	20.83	29.28	30.80	30.02	29.25
Upsale	30.17	29.71	29.25	30.49	29.83	29.16
Hudickswald	30.21	29.74	29.27	30.97	29.99	29.01
Hernæsfand						
Bygdea	30. 2	29.53	29.05	30.40	29.70	29. 0
Torneao	29.92	29.56	29.20	29.90	29.58	29.25

## NOVEMBER.

## DECEMBER.

	High	Mean	Low	High	Mean	Low
Goslar	31. 6	30. 5	30. 6	31. 8	31. 1	30. 4
Wittemberg	30. 3	29. 0	28. 9	30. 2	29. 6	29. 1
Naples	29.96	29.67	29.38	29.80	29.51	29.21
Southwick	29.95	29.45	28.91	30.04	29.42	28.80
Lunden	29.90	29.26	28.62	29.92	29.32	28.73
Swenæker	29.95	29.14	28.34	30.16	29.53	28.91
Risinge	29.80	29.05	28.30	30.05	29.42	28.80
Bettina	30.40	29.70	29.01	30.70	30.11	29.52
Upsale	30.10	29.44	28.79	30.49	29.87	29.25
Hudickswald	30.22	29.47	29.72	30.60	29.95	29.30
Bygdea	30.24	29.42	28.60	30.50	29.80	29.10

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thermometrical table of the highest, lowest and mean stations at *Naples*, *Southwick*, *Lunden* and *Upsal*, in 1728.

	JANUARY.			FEBRUARY.			MARCH.		
	High	Mean	Low	High	Mean	Low	High	Mean	Low
Naples	49. 05	43. 5	38. 5	48. 0	44. 5	35. 0	39. 5	35. 9	32. 3
Southwick	79.	67	55	80	67	54	69	57	45
Lunden	83	68	54	91	73	56	123	98	74
Upsale.	91. 5	80. 9	68. 3	89. 2	77. 9	66. 6	72. 1	63. 0	53. 9
	APRIL.			MAY.			JUNE.		
	High	Mean	Low	High	Mean	Low	High	Mean	Low
Naples	42. 5	33. 2	24. 0	26. 0	18. 5	11. 0	16. 0	9. 7	4. 5
Southwick	71. 0	53	36	56	40	24	50	35	19
Lunden	148	118	85	172	145	118	176	153	130
Upsale	69. 5	52. 1	44. 7	54. 7	45. 0	35. 3	42. 0	33. 6	25. 2
	JULY.			AUGUST.			SEPTEMBER.		
	High	Mean	Low	High	Mean	Low	High	Mean	Low
Naples	13. 5	8. 2	3. 0	16. 0	10. 0	4. 0	26. 5	17. 1	7. 7
Southwick	50	34	17	56	39	23	65	48	32
Lunden	172	152	132	153	133	113	150	122	94
Upsale	37. 2	31. 0	25. 5	40. 2	32. 8	25. 5	58. 4	46. 2	34. 6
	OCTOBER.			NOVEMBER.			DECEMBER.		
	High	Mean	Low	High	Mean	Low	High	Mean	Low
Naples	40. 0	31. 3	22. 5	48. 0	42. 0	34. 0	54. 5	54. 5	44. 7
Southwick	71	56	41	84	64	43	87	72	58
Lunden	119	98	78	109	87	64	83	71	59
Upsale	68. 2	58	47. 7	98. 0	57. 0	56. 1	89. 6	76. 8	64. 0

MEMOIRS of the  
*A Table of the Rain at Southwick and Naples in the  
Year 1728.*

Southwick		Naples.		Southwick		Naples.	
	Inch Cent.		Inch Measures		Inch Cent.		Inch Measures
Jan.	4. 00		4. 15½	Jul.	3. 21		0. 00
Feb.	0. 99		0. 00	Aug.	0. 96		0. 00
Mar.	3. 27		0. 5	Sept.	0. 86		4. 4
Apr.	1. 97		0. 14	Oct.	2. 79		6. 17½
May	1. 44		0. 00	Nov.	1. 52		2. 7
June	2. 82		1. 2½	Dec.	2. 43		6. 8½

*Rain in the whole Year.*

*At Southwick, is 26 Inches, and 26 Centesimal.*

*At Naples, is 19 Inches, and 14 Measures.*

To make the meteorological observations of 1728 as useful as possible, Dr. *Derham* has put as many of them as he could into tables, to be seen and compar'd at an easy view; but was obliged to omit such of them, where no account is given of the instruments they us'd, or where none at all were made use of, but only verbal descriptions given, which tables would not admit of. But the places mentioned in the tables had *Hawksbee's* glasses.

As to the barometrical observations the Dr. only repeats things he formerly took notice of, and has had frequent confirmation of *An. 1728*; 1. The great conformity of the ascents and descents, and stations of the mercury in the barometer. 2. That the range of the mercury is much greater in the northerly than in the southerly climates.

As to the thermometrical observations, he has inserted all that were made with the *Royal Society's* glasses; but such as were made with other thermometers would have been of little or no use, unless they could have been reduced to some known measure, which only two of the curious observers enabled him to do: But he found that matter so perplex'd and difficult, not to answer the great trouble of it, especially considering that the tables exhibit observations, made in different and distinct parts, *viz. Italy, Germany, England, and Sweden*; by which an estimate, may, in some measure, be made of the temperature of those different climates of the world. In order to which the

takes notice, that the point of extreme heat in the *Royal Society's* glasse is 5 degrees above 0, and of freezing at 65 degrees; if we cast our eye upon the several months, particularly of winter; especially if we consider what the Dr. remark'd from Dr. *Cyrillus*, concerning the freezing point, which *Naples* is at 55 degrees, at *London* 65 degrees, and at *Christina* and *Bengal*, probably as different. Considering these things it is surprising, that the heat and cold of those distant places is not as different as the northerly and southerly situations. But at *Lunden* he was surprised to find the thermometer much lower in the warmer months than at *Upsal*, or any other of the *Swedish* places, till he found that in all those months, they had continual cold and rain, when the other places men-s little but fair, or cloudy, and but little rain or cold. And this reminds him of a former observation, viz. that cold is the want of wet, especially in summer.

As to the winds and weather, so many are the places of observation, and so various the observations, that it is almost impossible to give a tolerable abridgment of them, and the Doctor's remarks therefore on the foregoing years, especially on the same places and parts of the world, (*vide Phil. Trans.* 433. p. 334, & seq.) must suffice here.

The quantity of rain and snow was observ'd at *Naples*, *Ribe*, *Bettina*, *Upsal*, *Hudickswald*, and *Southwick*; but he gives no description of the instruments with which the observations were made, nor of the measures, except at *Southwick* and *Naples*, where the depth is measured by *English* measure; *Southwick* by inches, and hundredth parts of an inch; and *Naples*, by *English* inches, and the observer's measures, 23 which make an *English* inch.

Here follows an account of such meteors as the illustrious observers have taken notice of, together with some of the Dr's that happened about the same time.

In the night after *March* 20. a *lumen boreale* was observ'd at *Bettina*; and at half an hour after 8 on *March* 22. the Dr. observ'd at *Windsor* an unusual sort of streaming, in which the columns were not (as usual) conical or pointed, nor rising towards the *Zenith* point; but were of parallel sides, and rose perpendicularly to the horizon. They were very bright, emitting a light equal to that of the moon in her quarters: They so rose from a bank of vapours, not curv'd at top (as usual) & lacinated or broken.

Likewise on March 24, the curious *Bettna* observer saith there was observed the night before, a *lumen efflammas boreum* which was also seen at *Læfanger*.

On August 26. at night, there was a remarkable *lumen reale*, at *Bettna*: And the night before at 10 hours 20 minutes p. m. a gentleman, going from the Doctor's house, saw towards the east, about 30 degrees high, a ball of fire about inches diameter, blazing and standing still at first; and presently after running towards the north; and in about 5 minutes or more he heard an explosion like thunder; its blaze emit a light equal to that of the moon at full.

At the same time the new-papers say, 'a light in the sky like a comet, was seen at *Watford* in *Hertfordshire*, with sparks of fire issuing from its tail; that then it broke off with a prodigious lustre, like the sun, which lasted not long, and was followed with a terrible clap of thunder, the sky twinkling all the while, and not a cloud to be seen. Which clap, the Dr. doubts not, was the same his friend heard, and which was 5 or more minutes in its passage *Upminster*'.

At *Bettna*, *lumina borealia* were seen on the nights of Sept. 18, 19, and 24; the 2d of which cover'd half the heavens. And on Sept. 21. about 10 hours p. m. the Dr. observed at *Upminster* an unusual sort of tan-coloured thick vapours towards the N. W. b. N. but withal lightsome, and such as stars might be seen through. And after some time they shew'd forth in divers places streaming lances, which gently and gradually came and went.

On October 13. the Dr. saw that uncommon sort of streaming at *Redbridge*, near *Southampton*, the account of which published in *Phil. Trans.* N° 410. and the same night at *Bettna* there was a *lumen boreale eructans flammarum*, as the observer expresses it: At *Læfanger* also those streamings were on the same night, and on the 15, 18, 19, and 23d.

On October 19. there was a parhelion at *Lunden*, and the 22d a *lumen boreale* at *Wittemberg*.

On November 12. we had considerable streaming at *Windham* and likewise at *Bettna* and *Umea*; and on the 29th at *Læfanger*; and again at *Umea* on Dec. 24.

The Dr. having receiv'd the curious observations S. Pole made at *Padua* for six years (vide *Phil. Trans.* N° 410. p. 201. & seq.) subjoins such of them as are conformable to his own.

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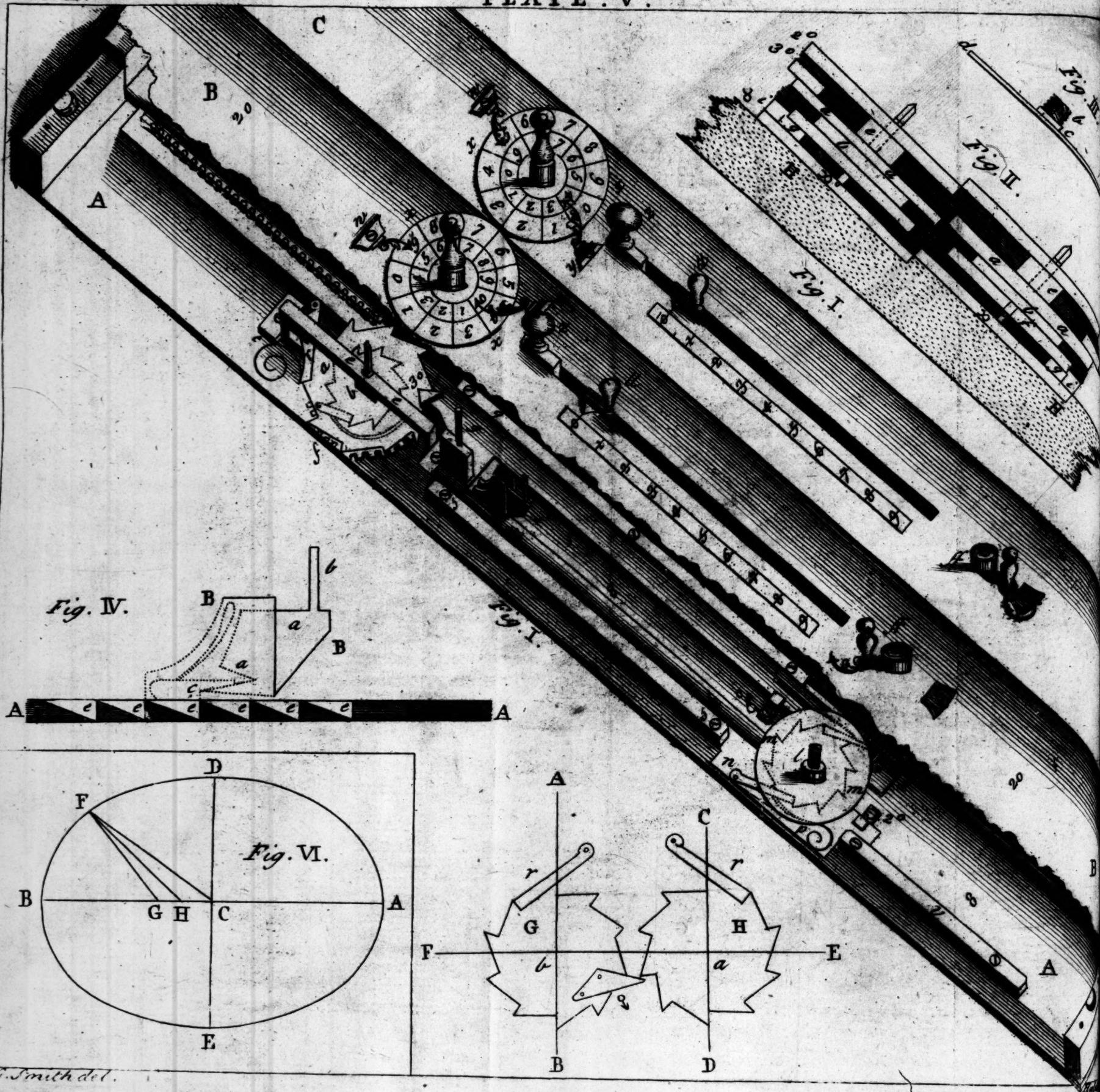




Fig I



## A TABLE OF CHARACTERS

unus duos tres quatuor quinque sex septem octo novem decim

Tyro and  
Seneca's  
Notes:

$\text{M}^{\text{m}}$	$\text{T}^{\text{t}}$	$\text{q}^{\text{q}}$	$\text{g}^{\text{g}}$	$\text{f}^{\text{f}}$	$\text{c}^{\text{c}}$	$\text{s}^{\text{s}}$
$\text{v}^{\text{v}}$	$\text{n}^{\text{n}}$	$\text{r}^{\text{r}}$	$\text{d}^{\text{d}}$	$\text{b}^{\text{b}}$	$\text{z}^{\text{z}}$	$\text{x}^{\text{x}}$
$\text{w}^{\text{w}}$	$\text{y}^{\text{y}}$	$\text{p}^{\text{p}}$	$\text{e}^{\text{e}}$	$\text{h}^{\text{h}}$	$\text{t}^{\text{t}}$	$\text{f}^{\text{f}}$
$\text{e}^{\text{e}}$	$\text{z}^{\text{z}}$	$\text{a}^{\text{a}}$	$\text{q}^{\text{q}}$	$\text{s}^{\text{s}}$	$\text{c}^{\text{c}}$	$\text{v}^{\text{v}}$

Fig VIII. Fig IX. Fig X.

 $\delta$   $\dag$   $\bar{M}$ 

Fig XI. Fig XII.

 $b$   $B$ Boethius's  
apices.Small Greek  
letters.Modern Indian  
figures.

Arabic figures.

Figures of St  
de sacre Boſſa.Figures of  
Max Planudes.Figures in  
Rog. Bacon's  
calendar.

Modern fig.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Fig. III. Fig. IV. Fig. V.

From  
Gruter's  
Antiquit.  
Vol. II in finDoctor Meads  
Manuscript.Tavernier  
Lev. 2 chap. 2

Manuscripts

Doctor Wallis

The Cotton  
library

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Fig VII  
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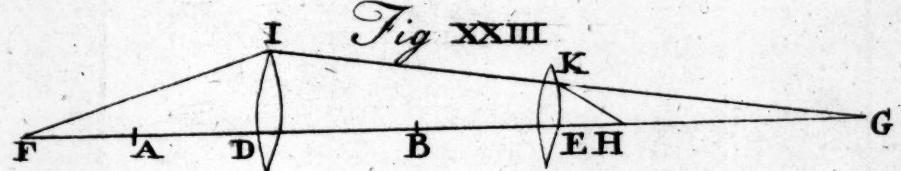


Fig. XXIII.

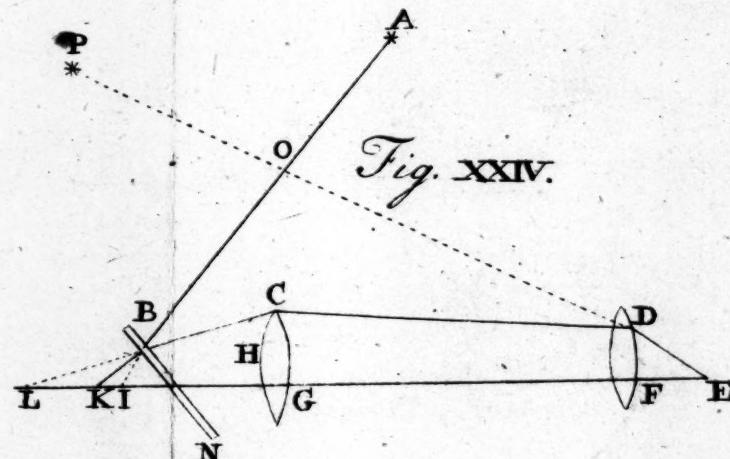


Fig. XXIV.

*A Table of the Rain at Padua, in the Years*

	1725 Inch Dec.	1726 Inch Dec.	1727 Inch Dec.	1728 Inch Dec.	1729 Inch Dec.	1730 Inch Dec.
Janu.	0. 521	1. 355	5. 955	4. 278	1. 085	0. 112
Febr.		1. 460	1. 073	1. 050	1. 245	2. 906
March	0. 889	3. 168	1. 878	4. 832	2. 902	4. 592
April	4. 019	3. 998	0. 498	1. 419	2. 768	1. 638
May	3. 625	1. 368	3. 530	3. 403	2. 634	4. 467
June	0. 036	2. 608	2. 476	2. 103	3. 134	6. 205
July	2. 297	2. 357	2. 930	4. 016	4. 526	2. 339
August	5. 185	1. 268	5. 067	5. 186	0. 578	4. 269
Sept.	2. 647	2. 900	4. 164	6. 948	3. 67	1. 090
Octob.	7. 104	0. 179	6. 576	5. 163	6. 994	5. 254
Nov.	3. 636	2. 277	5. 091	6. 836	4. 186	0. 534
Dec.	0.030	2. 390	7. 169	7. 599	2. 804	0. 894
Year	29.989	25.228	46.407	52.833	35.422	34.300

From this table M. *Poleni* observes, that the *Februaries* were the driest months, and 1726 the driest year in all the six; and that the *Octobers* were the wettest months, and 1728 the wettest of all the 6 years.

Farther also he saith, that in the 4 seasons of the years (reckning their beginning from the 10th day of their respective months, viz. *December*, *March*, *June*, and *September*) less wet falls in winter and spring, than in summer and autumn; and that the wet weather increases, as the seasons advance; that in winter the wet is least; that it increaseth in spring; is more in summer; and most of all in autumn.

For proof of this M. *Poleni* hath made a table of the mean quantities of the rain in the 4 seasons of each of the 6 years; the sums of which 6 years rain are, as follows, in winter 39.490 inches; in spring 52.188 inches; in summer 58.25 inches; and in autumn 74.558 inches. But in the many years the Dr. obser'd the weather at *Upminster*, he finds it not so.

M E M O I R S of the  
*A Table of the highest and lowest Station of the barometer  
 with the winds and weather in the*

Year	Month	Day	S	Barometer Highest	Barometer Lowest	Winds	Weather at the same time.
1725	Janu.	19	30.28			W	Fair.
	Dec.	8		28.56	S W 4		Cloudy.
1726	Nov.	28	30.18			N	Fair.
	Feb.	13		28.92	S W		Cloudy.
1727	Nov.	20	30.24			N W	Fair.
	Octob.	29		28.80	S 2		Cloudy.
1728	Dec.	2	30.20			N	Thin Clouds.
	Dec.	12		29.00	N W		Small Rain.
1729	Dec.	20	30.30			W	Somewh. cloudy
	Nov.	10		28.90	N		Rain.
1730	Dec.	20	30.40			N	Fair.
	Feb.	27		28.98	S E		Sunsh. with C

From this table it appears, from the highest and lowest stations in the 6 years, that the greatest range of the barometer is 1. 84 inches ; but at *Naples* it is only 94 centefimals of an inch ; and what it was in other places the Dr. has given some account of in his remarks on 1727.

The illustrious observer hath also been very curious, and sedulous, in his observations of the thermometer. But the Dr. had not so much knowledge of his thermometer, as might enable him to compare his observations with his own.

S. *Poleni* hath also compared with his own, the quantities of rain, and the barometrical range observed at *Paris*, by M. *De la Hire*; and he finds that the rain at *Paris* is 16. 4 $\frac{1}{2}$  lines, and the barometrical range 2  $\frac{1}{2}$  lines more than that at *Padua*.

The last thing S. *Poleni* takes notice of is the magnetical declination, which he saith is 13 degrees west and hath decreased in the 6 years  $\frac{1}{2}$  ; that every day there is a small alteration in declination : So that it doth not continue the same a whole day together ; that the declination of all needles (espe-

cially

ally if touch'd by different magnets) is different a few sexagesimal parts. But these niceties the Dr. recommends to the enquiry of the curious; because they disagree with the observations of Gilbert, and most of the magnetical writers.

*Experiments and Observations on the light, produced by communicating electrical attraction to animate or inanimate bodies; together with some of its most surprising effects;* by Mr. Stephen Gray. Phil. Trans. N° 436. p. 16.

THE several new electrical discoveries M. Dufay made, especially that important luciferous one, mentioned in a former Transaction, put Mr. Gray upon making the following experiments.

In spring 1733, as Mr. Gray had not any silk lines by him strong enough to bear the boy, he caused him to stand in some of the electrick bodies; and as he concluded, he found the effect the same, as mentioned by M. Dufay. He waves mentioning the particulars of the experiment; but proceeds to those that were suggested to him upon M. Dufay's saying, that these snappings or sparks are not excited, if a piece of wood, or any other matter than a living body, be passed over the person suspended on the lines, unless it be a piece of metal: From hence he concluded, that if he suspended the metal upon silk lines, or laid it upon any of the electric bodies, the effect must be the same, when the metal had been made electrical by the tube, and the hand of any one was held near it; and he found it to succeed accordingly. He began first with some common utensils that were at hand, as the iron poker, tongs and fire-shovel; any of these being suspended upon lines of the largest sewing silk, and then the excited tube being applied first to the knob of the poker, and afterwards to the hand, there was the snap and pricking felt, as he expected; and the effect was the same, when the tube was first applied to the other end of the poker. He had by him a three pronged iron instrument, which was made many years before; it was designed for propping up the observatory table, when he observ'd the spots in the sun: The prongs were about  $\frac{1}{4}$  an inch in diameter, two of them about 22 inches, and the third about 8 inches long, and pointed; this being laid either upon cylinders of glafs, cakes of rosin, and bees-wax, or on a cake of sulphur, the tube being applied to the end of any of the legs, while the hand or cheek was applied near the other, both the other legs had the same effect, as that to which the tube had been

applied ; but by holding his cheek near any of the points of the legs, the pricking or burning pain was much more sensibly felt, and was sometimes felt for several minutes after. He was not so inquisitive at that time about making the experiments in the dark, that he might see the light proceeding from the iron, not thinking that the electricity communicated to the metals would have produced so surprising phenomena, as by the following account of the experiments will be described.

As to the success in repeating M. *Dufay's* experiment at Mr. *Wheeler's*, we procur'd silk lines strong enough to bear the weight of his foot-boy, a good stout lad : Then having suspended him upon the lines, the tube being applied to his feet or hands, and the finger of any one that stood by held near his hands or face, he found himself prick'd or burnt, as it were, by a spark of fire, according to M. *Dufay's* account, and the snapping noise was heard at the same time : But it did not succeed when we applied our hands to any part of his body through his cloaths, except upon his legs, upon which he felt the pain thro' his stockings, tho' they were very thick ones.

Being desirous to make the experiments upon another species of animals ; we took a large white cock, and suspending him upon the lines first alive, the effect was the same as on the boy whether we applied our fingers to any part of his body or our cheek to his beck, comb or claws ; then the cock was killed and put on the lines again, and we found very little, if any difference, from the effect it had on us when the cock was living : We then caused the cock to be stript of all his feathers and the difference from what has been before said was not very considerable.

We took a large sirloin of beef, that came from an ox that had been kill'd two days before, and suspended it on the silk-lines : Then upon holding the fingers near any part of it there was a snapping, and the fingers were push'd or prick'd ; but the snapping was thought not to be quite so loud, as when the experiment was made on the cock.

We caused to be made an iron rod, 4 foot long, and about half an inch diameter, pointed at each end, but not sharp, being left about the bigness of a pin's head ; this was suspended on the lines ; then the tube being rubbed, and held near one end of the rod, and then the finger or cheek, put near either end of the rod, the effect was the same, as when an animal had been suspended on the line, with respect to the prickling pain we felt.

At night we made the luminous part of the experiment, suspending the iron rod on the silk lines ; then applying one end of the tube to one end of the rod, not only that end had a light upon it ; but there proceeded a light at the same time from the other, extending in form of a cone, whose vertex was at the end of the rod ; and we could plainly see that it consisted of threads, or rays of light, diverging from the point of the rod ; and the exterior rays incurvated. This light is attended with a small hissing noise ; every stroke we gave the tube causes the light to appear : The hissing seems to begin at that end of the rod next the tube ; and as it comes, increases in loudness ; but it is so small as not to be heard without good attention, and by those only that stand at the end of the rod from whence the said light proceeds.

Mr. Godfrey being desirous to see these experiments, Mr. Gray repeated them, by laying a rod of iron upon a cake of shell-lac, which was laid upon a glass-vessel ; and the effects were much the same with what has been mentioned above.

After his return to London, which was in September 1733. Mr. Gray caused to be made 3 iron rods, one 4 foot long, and two, 3 foot long each ; one of these was made tapering towards the ends, and pointed as that of 4 foot was ; the other pointed at one end, and the other end not pointed, the diameter of the rods about half an inch ; they were first forged, then file'd and burnish'd. With these he made the following experiments : When any of them were laid upon the brims of hollow cylinders of glass well warm'd, or upon cakes of rosin and bees-wax, or upon those of sulphur, the phenomenon was the same, as when they had been suspended on silk lines : But now he discover'd a very surprising one, viz. that after the tube had been applied, and the light seen at both ends, upon his going to the other end of the rod, when there was no light to be seen, upon holding his hand at some distance from it, then moving his hand towards it with a pretty swift motion, there issued from that point of the rod a cone of light, as when the tube had been applied to the end ; and upon repeating this motion of his hand, the same phenomenon appeared for 5 or 6 times successively, only the rays were each time shorter than the other : these lights were attended with a hissing noise. That light which appears upon that end next the tube, when it is held obliquely to the axis of the rod, has its range tending towards it : All the time he is rubbing the tube, these flashes of light appear upon every motion of his hand up or down the tube ;

tube ; but the largest flashes are produced by the motion of his hand downwards.

When 2 or 3 rods are laid either in a right line, or forming any angle with each other ; or either touch, or are at a small distance from one another, the tube being applied to one of their ends ; the farthest end of the farther rod exhibits the same phenomena, as one single rod does.

An experiment with the rod pointed at but one of its ends, when the tube is applied to the other end, the point exhibits the same appearance and a like effect with the rods, that are pointed at each end ; but the great end of the rod, when the hand or cheek is applied near it, gives but one single snap, but this is much louder than the greatest of those from the point of the rod, and one feels a little more pain by it.

He caus'd forge an iron ball, and then turn and burnish it ; it was 2 inches diameter, and placed on a wooden stand that had a small concave on the top; in which the ball was placed : The stand being set upon a cylindric glass, then the excited tube being applied near the ball, there proceeded a stream of light from it, with a small hissing noise : Then putting his finger or cheek near the ball, there was no snapping nor any pain felt ; yet there appear'd a very bright light.

The rod of 4 foot long, being placed upon a stand, that had a cross arm with a groove in it to receive the rod ; and then the stand being placed on the glass cylinder, they were set at such a distance as that one of the points of the rod might just touch the ball over against its centre ; then going to the other end of the rod with the excited tube, he applied it as usual ; when he came to the ball, the hand or cheek being near it, caus'd a loud snap, compared to those made by the points of the rods, and the pain of pricking or burning was more strongly felt, the light was also brighter and more contracted : He then placed the rod with its point at an inch distance from the ball, and applying the rod as before, he came to the ball, and touching it with his hand or finger there not only appear'd a light on the ball, but there also proceeded a pencil of light from the point of the rod, after the same manner, as when the experiments had been made with the rods only.

The following experiment was made with the 4 foot rod and a bras plate 4 foot square : This was placed upon a stand ; so that the plate stood perpendicular, the stand being set on the cylindric glass ; then the rod with its stand and

als was set in such manner that one point of it was about an inch from the centre of the plate ; then the tube being applied to the other end of the rod, and after going to the plate, on striking it gently with his finger on the backside, light appear'd upon the plate, and at the same time the pencil of light came out from the point of the rod ; and when his hand or cheek was held near any of the angles of the plate, there came a light from thence with a small hissing noise, and the pricking was felt, as when the experiments were made with the pointed rods.

A pewter plate being laid upon the stand, which had been set upon a glass cylinder, applying the tube first and then the finger, there appear'd a light upon the plate, and the end of the finger was push'd ; and when the cheek was held near the edge of the plate, there was a snapping heard, but not loud as when the iron rods were us'd. He then fill'd the plate with water, and applying the tube and finger as before, there was the same light, pushing of the finger and snapping, when the experiment was made with the empty plate. When the experiment is made with water by day light, by applying the end of the finger near the surface of the water, it appears to rise in a little hill, and upon the snapping noise falls down again, putting the water into a waving motion, near the place where the water had risen.

He then took a wooden dish, and placed it upon the stand, it empty ; then applying the tube and the finger near the dish, there appear'd a light, but no pushing of the finger, or snapping : He then fill'd the dish with water, and the tube being held over the surface of the water, there appear'd a greater light than when the finger had been applied to the empty dish, but no snapping ; till by holding the tube after it had been well rubbed, within 2 or 3 inches of the finger it was held near the surface of the water ; and then the finger was push'd, and a snapping noise heard, as when the experiment was made with the pewter plate.

By these experiments we see, that an actual flame of fire, together with an explosion, and an ebullition of cold water, may be produced by communicative electricity ; and tho' these effects are at present but *in minimis*, it is probable, in time there may be found out a way to collect a greater quantity of it ; and consequently to increase the force of this electric fire ; which, by several of these experiments, seems to

to be of the same nature with that of thunder and lightning.

*An Account of M. Seignette's Sal polychrestus Rupellensis and some other chemical Salts; by M. Geoffroy. Phil. Trans. N° 436. p. 37.*

**M.** Seignette's *sal Polychrestus Rupellensis* is a *tartarum solubile*, compos'd of cream or crystals of tartar and the fixed salt of the *kali* of *Alicante*, well depurated. This salt is very singular: For, tho' it be a fixt alkaline salt it has the peculiar property of crystallizing, nor does it easily dissolve in the open air, as other fixt salts do; but on the contrary calcines therein like vitriols or *Glauber's salt*. Another peculiar property, M. Geoffroy observ'd of it is, that it be saturated with a vitriolic acid, and the liquor be evaporated, there results a salt that resembles *Glauber's salt*, and has all the properties requisite to make M. Seignette's salt. In order to which;

Take of the salt of *kali* well depurated 1 lb., dissolve in water, add thereto about 1 lb. ss. of crystals of tartar, boil the whole in order to dissolve the crystals: But the exact proportion of crystals of tartar can be determined no more in this operation, than in making the *tartarum solubile*, either because the salt of *kali* has retain'd more or less humidity in its crystallization, or because the tartar has more or less impurities in it. But if there be too much tartar in the alkaline liquor, after the fermentation is over, filtrate the liquor, and as it cools, the superfluous tartar will fall to the bottom. After the separation of the tartar from the liquor, evaporate the lixivium by a gentle fire, set it in a cool place to crystallize, and you will have very fine crystals. If the liquor be evaporated a little too much, there will be no crystals of salt formed, but the liquor will be converted into a hard transparent mass, not unlike glue. But if you dissolve this mass again, you may make it crystallize, as upon solving M. Seignette's salt.

This salt purges very well, from one to two ounces, solv'd in a quart of water.

M. Seignette's crystallized alkaline salt, is the salt of *kali* that does not dissolve in the air. M. Geoffroy was actually at work in perfecting this salt, in examining that of *kali*, comparing it with *borax*. From this last he extracts *Glauber's salt*.

It, by mixing it with oil of vitriol. The mixture of borax ounces with one ounce and a drachm of vitriol, upon sublimation, gives the *sal sedativum*, described by M. Homberg; and the residue expos'd to a strong fire affords Glauber's salt. Geoffroy found out a method to shorten this operation: or, instead of subliming this salt, he gets it by crystallization in light foliated *lamineæ*. This salt, whether sublimated, crystalliz'd, has the property of dissolving in spirit of wine; and if you set this spirit of wine on fire, its flame is green. Spirit of wine has no effect on borax; the oil of vitriol, diluted with spirit of wine, communicates no greenness to its flame; it is therefore requisite, that the borax be united with acid, in order to produce this green flame.

*Sal sedativum* made by crystallization crystallizes in a peculiar manner: This operation is performed with 4 ounces of borax, 1 ounce and 1 drachm of concentrated oil of vitriol, the most fixt and weighty that can be had. The borax is put into a glass retort, the oil of vitriol is pour'd on it, and then half an ounce of common water. This mixture being expos'd to a fire, gradually increased, after the phlegm has iss'd off, and even while it is a passing, there rise flowers, or volatile salt in very beautiful foliated *lamineæ*, some of which melt by the heat of the fire. After the operation, the finest of these flowers, which are round the neck of the retort, are gather'd; and those that are grey are thrown upon the remaining mass; which mass is dissolv'd in water, filtrated and evaporated slowly. Sometimes even without evaporation, the shining talcous *lamineæ* are to be seen in the liquor. In 24 hours the liquor is pour'd off these *lamineæ*; they are wash'd in fair water, set to drain, and then to dry in a stove.

If these crystals do not calcine in the stove, or in the sun, it is a sign there is nothing crystallized but the *sal neutrum*: if they do calcine, it is a sign that there is some Glauber's salt mixed: And then this salt must be dissolv'd again in hot water, and re-crystalliz'd. No body before M. Geoffroy thought of extracting this salt by crystallization, being always sublimed hitherto.

*An Account of a Machine for changing the Air of the Room of sick People in a little time, by either drawing out the foul Air, or forcing in fresh; or doing both successively without opening Doors or Windows; by Dr. Desaguliers.*

Phil. Trans. N° 437. p. 41.

**D**E CB (Fig. 1. Plate IV.) represents a case, containing a wheel of 7 foot diameter, and 1 foot thick; being a cylindrical box, divided into 12 cavities by partitions direct from the circumference towards the centre, but wanting inches of reaching the centre; being open towards the centre, and likewise towards the circumference; and only clos'd the circumference by the case, in which the wheel turns by means of a handle, fixt to its axis A, which axis turns in iron forks, or half concave cylinders of bell-metal, such as A, fixt to the upright timber or standard A E.

From the middle of the case on the other side behind there comes out a trunk or square pipe, call'd the sucking pipe; which is continu'd quite to the upper part of the sick persons room, whether it be near or far from the place where the machine stands, in an upper or lower story, above or below the machine. There is a circular hole in one of the circular planes of the machine, of 18 inches diameter round the axis, just where the pipe is inserted into the case, where the pipe communicates with all the cavities; and as the wheel is turned swiftly round, the air, which comes from the sick person's room, is taken in at the centre of the wheel, and driven to the circumference; so as to go out very swiftly at the blowing pipe B, fixt to the said circumference.

As the foul air is driven away from the sick room, the air in the neighbouring apartments will gradually come into the room thro' the smallest passages: But there is a contrivance to apply the pipes which go to the sick room to the blowing pipe B, while the sucking pipe receives its air only from the room where the machine stands. By this means fresh air may be driven into the sick room after the foul has been drawn out.

This machine would be of great use in all hospitals, and prisons: It would also serve very well to convey warm or cold air into any distant room; nay, to perfume it insensibly upon occasion.

Fig. 2. represents the inside of the flat of the wheel, which is farthest from the handle, and next to the sucking pipe.

2, 3, 4 represents the cavity or hole, which receives the air and the axis, having a circular plate of iron round it to hold all firm; which plate is made fast to the wood and to the iron cross that has the axis in it; ggg, a prick'd circle, presents a narrow ring of thick blanketeting (which by pressing against the outside case, whilst it is fixt to the outside of the flat of the wheel) makes the passage into the wheel tight; HH is another circle of blanketeting, likewise fixed to the outside of the wheel, and rubbing against the case, that the violently driven against the inner circumference of the case may have no way out, but at the blowing pipe at B. There is on the outside of the other flat of the wheel, where the handle is fixt, a ring of blanketeting, like HHH, opposite to it; but none opposite to ggg; because the wood there is not open, but comes home close to the axis.

Fig. 3. represents a vertical section of the wheel and case, sette forward of the axis, drawn by a scale twice as large as that of the other 2 figures: A a, the axis supported by the pins Aa, cylindrically hollow'd, excepting the upper part, where a pin keeps in the axis; BD the case with the sucking pipe Sa; EA the prop for one end of the axis; 1, 2, the opening into the wheel; gg the eminence of the wood, to which is fixed the small ring of blanketeting; the four black marks, one of which is near H, represent the sections of the other two rings of blanketeting.

*Calculation of the Velocity of the Air, mov'd by the new invented centrifugal Bellows of 7 foot diameter and 1 foot thick within; by Dr. Desaguliers.* Phil. Trans. N° 437. p. 44.

WHEN the wheel revolves upon its axis (every revolution in this machine being performed by a man with very little labour in about half a second of time) the air may consider'd as divided into as many concentrical circumferences, as there are particles of air contain'd between the least and greatest circle; consequently, the centrifugal forces will be as the radii; that is in an arithmetical progression.

Let R = radius of the greatest circle be 3. 5 foot  
 r = radius of the least circle 0. 75

m = radius of the middle circle 2. 125

$$r + \frac{R-r}{2} = \frac{R+r}{2}.$$

$v$  = the velocity, or space, described in the middle circle in a second of time, upon supposition that the wheel performs 2 revolutions in a second.

$S$  = the space described by the action of gravity in a second of time.

$s$  = the space that a particle of air receding from the centre would in a second of time describe by the action of the centrifugal force at the circumference of the middle circle.

$2m : v :: v s : s$ ; therefore,  $\frac{v v}{2m} = s$  by Huygens's rule.

$G$  and  $c$  express the force of gravity, and the centrifugal force at the middle circle. Since the spaces described in the same time by the action of 2 forces are as those forces,

$s :: G : c$ , and  $\frac{sG}{S} = c$ , and substituting in this expression

$\frac{v v}{2m}$  instead of  $s$ , we have  $\frac{v v G}{2m S} = c$ ; and putting  $\frac{R+r}{2}$

instead of its equal  $m$ ,  $\frac{v v G}{R+r \times S} = c$ . So that the ratio of gravity to the centrifugal force, at the middle circle, is

of  $G$  to  $\frac{v v G}{R+r \times S}$ , or that of 1 to  $\frac{v v}{R+r \times S}$ ; which be-

multiplied by the number of the revolving circles  $R - r$  gives for the pressure of the column of air  $R - r$  proceeding from gravity  $R - r$ , and the pressure proceeding from

centrifugal forces  $\frac{R - r \times v v}{R + r \times S}$ ; wherein  $R - r$  being a fac-

tor common to both may be thrown out of the expression. And since the velocities produced from different pressures are as the square roots of the pressures, the velocity with gravity would give from the natural weight or pressure  $R - r$  will be to the velocity which the same column would have from the pressure occasion'd by the centrifugal force,

$\sqrt{1},$  or 1 to  $\sqrt{\frac{v v}{R + r \times S}}$ .

Lastly, since the velocity proceeding from the action of gravity upon a column =  $R - r$  is always a known quantity it may be call'd =  $a$  (in this case equal to 15.38 foot per second) and consequently, the velocity proceeding from the

centrifugal force will be  $a \times \sqrt{\frac{vv}{R+r \times S}}$ , or  $a v \times \sqrt{\frac{1}{R+r \times S}}$ ,

or  $\frac{av}{\sqrt{R+r \times S}}$ : That is, in this machine  $\frac{15.38 \times 26.78}{\sqrt{4.25 \times 16.1}} = 49.67$  foot per second. And if we add to this the velocity of the outer circle, in the tangent of which the air escapes, which in the supposition we made of 2 revolutions in a second (of time) is 44 foot per second, we shall have it = 93.67 foot per second.

N. B. This calculation supposes the bore of the sucking pipe sufficiently great to furnish as much air as would escape, according to this velocity: But in this machine the sucking pipe being no greater than the ajutage or blowing pipe, the velocity proceeding from the pressure occasion'd by the centrifugal force, and from the velocity in the tangent (which may be represented by a column of air of sufficient height to give the velocity of 93.67 foot, which is 145.882 foot) must be divided into 2 equal parts, one half employ'd in sucking, and the other in blowing; therefore, the half of 145.882 foot, which is 72.941 foot, will represent the height of a column of air, that would occasion the same pressure, with which the centrifugal force and the circular motion act in this machine; and a column of this height producing a velocity of 68.53 foot per second. This number will express the velocity with which the air is suck'd into the wheel; and the same number will likewise express the velocity of the air out of the blower, proceeding from the centrifugal force, and the circular velocity of the outer circle, which is the real velocity of the stream of air out of the blower of this machine, viz. 68.53 foot per second; which is at the rate of a mile in about 77 seconds, or about 7 miles in 9 minutes.

The Uses of the foregoing Machine; by the same. Phil. Trans. N° 437. p. 47.

ONE of these centrifugal wheels is fixt in a room above the House of Commons, to draw away the hot steam arising from the candles, and the breath of the company in the house, when it is very full, in warm weather; as also afterwards to drive in a stream of fresh air, to spread uniformly all over the house, by coming in at the middle of the cieling.

Besides

Besides the uses of this machine for sick rooms and prisons, for warming, cooling, or perfuming any chambers at a distance; it may also serve in a man of war, to take away the foul air between decks, occasioned by the number of men in the ship, and to give them fresh air in a few minutes. In every part of the vessel every foul hole may be rendred wholesome, and even the stench and foul air from the surface of the bulge-water may be carried off. As to mines, the machine must prove of excellent use. For, as the damps, (either fulminating, which taking fire, destroy the men and ruin the works, or arsenical, which kill by their poisonous nature) are some specifically lighter, and some specifically heavier than common air; this centrifugal wheel can in a little time drive down air thro' wooden trunks, or launders, of 7 inches bore, in such quantities into the deepest mines, as to cause all the light damp to come out at the top of the pit; or by only altering 2 sliders, suck away all the heavy poisonous damp, whilst wholesome air goes down from above ground into the pit, so as to fill all the subterraneous caverns with fresh and wholesome air.

Likewise a great many of the difficulties, which attend the carrying on subterraneous passages for the conveyance of water from mines (call'd soughs, adits or drifts) may be remov'd by help of this wheel: For, the fresh air may be driven in a very little time to the place where the men are at work; tho' at the distance of 2, 3, or 4 miles: and therefore also to any intermediate space: Whereas the practice now is, either to make a double drift with communications between the two for the circulation of the air, or to sink perpendicular shafts or pits from the top of the hill over the adit; both which methods are very expensive, and will, (the doctor doubts not) upon trial, be out-done by the application of this machine.

*The case of a cataleptic Woman; by Mr. Richard Reynell.*  
Phil. Trans. N<sup>o</sup> 437. p. 49.

**O**NCE Anne Bullard, a Servant maid, about 21 years of age, had for some time been irregular in her mentes, and very much afflicted for the loss of a friend. July 10. 1730. She complained of a pain in her head, sickness in her stomach, with a general disorder; and she took Gascoign's powder for a sweat: Next morning about 9 o'clock, she was found in bed, senseless, stiff, and void of feeling, with her eyes shut. When Mr. Reynell came, he found her in a true cataleptic fit, sense-

less,

ss, without motion, her limbs very stiff, but warm, and not easily bent : But in whatever posture any limb was put, continued in the same, whether erect or reclin'd : Her respiration was good ; but her pulse low, and irregular : She had no catchings nor convulsive motions ; but could, by no means, be brought to herself. A vein was opened in the arm, and 12 ounces of blood taken away : she bled freely, and came a little to herself, but could not speak. He then gave her the following draught. Rx *Aq. Menth. Rutæ, Bryon. Co. aa 3ij. Sal. volat. Corn. C. Dss. Sacchar. albiss. Dij f. haust.* and 5 spoonfulls at pleasure of the following Julep. Rx *Aq. Puleg. Menth. aa 3ij. Aq. Brion. Co. Nephrit. aa 3ij's Tinct. astor. 3ij. Sacchar. albiss. q. S. f. Tulapium.* In a few hours she came to herself ; and upon asking whether she knew how she was taken ? She replied, that she had been restless and uneasy till about 4 o'clock in the morning, when she belev'd she fell into the disorder she was found in ; but rememb'r'd nothing that had happened besides. She complained of dizziness in her head, with a violent pain in the fore-part of sickness at her stomach, and she was a little feverish. He gave her the following vomit at 4 o'clock in the afternoon. Rx *Cardui benedict. 3j. Pulu. ipecacuanh. 3ss. Triol. alb. depurat. gr. vi. oxym. scillit. 3ss. f. haust.* The vomit work'd kindly, and she seem'd reliev'd by it. About 6 o'clock in the evening another fit returned, much in the same manner as before ; but she soon came out of it ; and then she took the draught with the volatile salt of hartshorn, as before ; and he applied a large blister to her back, and two more to her arms : About 9 the same evening she had a strong convulsion fit, with catchings, grinding of the teeth, and a great treor, neither of which she had before : She had a stool the preceding night, but none that day. He gave her the following draught at night going to rest. Rx *Tinct. Hier. cum vino Et. 3jss. Aq. Ment. 3vj. Sp. Lavend. Co. 3ss. f. haust.* and he continued taking the draught, with the volatile salt, &c. every 4 hours. July 12, she had been light-headed all night, with little or no rest ; the blisters were dressed, which discharg'd plentifully, and the tincture had given her three stools in the night, which had made her a little faint ; her pulse was low, and her water pale. He saw her in the evening, when she had got pretty well, after which she was refresh'd ; the pain in her head but little, her stomach easy, and he found her in every respect better. The draughts were continued every 6 hours, and

and when faint or ill, she took of the above mentioned julep July 13, in the morning he found her head easy, her water higher coloured : She was allowed broth and food of easy digestion, which agreed very well with her : She sat up in the afternoon, but was faint, and her head giddy ; but when in bed she was better : She had no stool that day. He gave her a draught with the volatile salt, &c. at night going to rest and the following purge next morning. Rx. *Tinct. Hier. cum vino fact.* 3j *s Syr. è Spinâ cerv.* *Aq. puleg. aa 3vj Sp. Lavend. Co.* 3j f. *baust. cum regimine cap.* July 14, the purge worked 5 times ; she eat a little dinner, and was easy : But upon walking about the room, her head was giddy, and she trembled very much ; but when in bed she was better. He gave her the following draught at night going to rest. Rx. *Rutæ, puleg. Bryon. Co. aa 3vj Sp. Corn. C. opt. gutt. 40. Tinct. Castor.* 3j *Sacchar. albiss. paululum f. baust.* July 15. She complained when up of a numbness in her legs, and a prickling in them, like what happens when the legs are (as we commonly call it) asleep : Her appetite was better, and she was in every respect mended. She took the following medicine Rx. *Pulv. rad. Valerian. syru. 9ij P. Castor. Russ. 9j Asæfæd. 3j Tinct. Castor. q. s. f. Massa pilular. cuius formentur pilo.* N° 40. of which she took 4 twice every day with a small draught of the following julep. Rx. *Aq. Ceras. nigr. Aq. Rutæ, Pæon. Co. aa 3ij Sp. Lavend. Co. 3vj Syrup. Crystoph. q. s. f. Julap.* of which she likewise took 5 spoonfuls at pleasure. The blisters were kept running as long as possible ; and when they were dried up, July 19, he gave her the same purge as before. July 22. She had continued very well without any return of a fit ; but upon cutting an issue in her arm, she fell into a third fit, in which she continued near two hours, but then came to herself and was well that evening. July 29. the purge was repeated. August 6. She complained a pain in her head, sickness in her stomach, and some days before she had a shew of the menses, and had vomited nearly a pint of blood, and was costive : He then advised her to take 2 spoonfulls of *tinctura sacra*, every night, or every other night, going to bed, as she found it necessary, and 40 of the following drops. Rx. *Sp. C. C. opt. 3ijj Tinct. Helleb. nigra. 3v* to be taken twice a day in cammomile tea. She took the medicines about 3 weeks, which answered expectation, and recovered.

*Innertus in Med. pract. lib. 1. c. 30* says, 'that a catalepsis is a case so rare, that it is supposed hardly one physician in a hundred has seen a cataleptic patient; therefore the history of a catalepsis, when it happens, is carefully to be noted.'

*Account of the Operation of the Fistula Lachrymalis; by Francis Joseph Hunauld. Phil. Trans. N° 437. p. 54.*

R. Hunauld remarks, that the intention in the operation of the *fistula lachrymalis* in destroying the *os unguis*, *saccus lachrymalis*, thro' which the tears naturally distil the nose, is to procure them a new passage thither, by the thus artificially made: Wherefore in order to keep the s of this hole asunder, to prevent its filling up, and to render flesh, which forms its circumference, hard, and callous, as ere, a tent made of prepared sponge, &c. is put into this passage, and is continued therein a month or two. Not-  
itstanding this precaution, it happens but too often, that the s, instead of keeping the road prepared for them with care, flow over the lower eye-lid, as before the operation, occasion a weeping, which now becomes past remedy.

is easy to prove, that those very means, which are used for the operation to make the tears distil into the nose, generally the cause of the subsequent weeping: For by closing the wound with small plegets, and putting a tent into hole that was made, the orifice of the little common canal that serves to convey the tears into the *ductus lachrymalis*, bears a compressure, and is rendred hard, thick and callous; thereby as its diameter is very small, it is easily stopped up. The contusion made on this little orifice, and round about it, engs on a suppuration; after which the parts coalesce, and orifice of this small canal closes up. The pus or sanies, in the course of the distemper flowed back, both thro' the common canal, and the small canals, which are a continuation the *puncta lachrymalia*, has sometimes occasion'd excoriations; in consequence of which there happens a regeneration flesh during the dressings, a small matter of which is sufficient to stop up such slender ducts. In fine, those small canals, of which nothing passes for a month or two; that the dressings either close by their proper springiness, or their diameters lessened by their small vessels becoming varicose. It is certain, t injections are sometimes made thro' the *puncta lachrymalia*; but the propelling force of these injections overcomes the resistances, which the cause, that naturally drives the tears

into the *puncta lachrymalia*, is not in a condition to get better of

Thus it appears from the detail of the accidents enumerated and which generally happen, more or less, that while the animal is endeavouring to preserve a clear passage for the tears into the nose, he labours, without designing it, to stop the entry of the upper part of their canal. The best way to avoid part of these accidents, and keep open the new canal from the eye to the nose, is precisely to do nothing. This is what experience confirm'd, and what theory, well understood, will likewise give a clear conception of.

It is a thing not very easy to determine, how the tears, or the liquid that is continually found on the surface of the eye, in order to preserve the cleanliness and transparency of the cornea, can pass thro' the *puncta lachrymalia*. It is moreover observed, that when one lies in bed, this liquid enters into the *puncta lachrymalia*, which in that position are higher than the eye, as well as into the *puncta lachrymalia* of the opposite eye. The ascent of liquors in capillary tubes above the level, might be proposed to explain this last fact. One might likewise in some circumstances imagine that the road which the tears keep, to pass from the eye into the nose, to be a phon, whose short leg is divided into two. These two fine ideas, however, are not sufficient to account for the phenomenon under consideration. The following *rationale* seems to the Dr. quite as simple, and more accurate.

The air present at the orifice of all the ducts, which have any communication with the *trachæa*, is by its proper weight determined to enter them, when the resistance happens to be diminished. Thus as, during inspiration, it passes thro' mouth and nostrils, so it likewise enters the *puncta lachrymalia*: and must necessarily carry along with it, towards the *puncta lachrymalia* and their small canals, the moisture which lubricates the surface of the ball of the eye, as it mixes with it: It is therefore already easy to perceive, that in order to preserve to the tears their new and artificial road into the nose, one need only commit the whole care to the continual passage of the air and tears. It is well known in surgery, that it is difficult, not to say impossible, to effect a re-union in a hole that serves as an emunctory to a liquor constantly flowing through it.

Now let us examine, if nature alone can stop the hole made by the operation. It will not be imagined, that from the remains of a bony *lamina*, so thin as the *os unguis*, a sufficient quantity

of ossifying juice can work out to stop it up. The *peri-*  
*os unguis* and *saccus lachrymalis* are too much lacerated, to think  
possible for them to repair of themselves what they had lost.  
Nor will it be believ'd, that the *membrana pituitaria* can easi-  
ly fill up the hole made in it. These are the parts con-  
cerned in the operation : But even if they be granted to be  
more disposed to a re-production than they really are, still the  
tears will always be able to preserve themselves a pas-  
sage into the nose.

Wherefore, after having destroy'd the *saccus lachrymalis*  
and *os unguis*, instead of introducing an extraneous body capa-  
ble of making the orifice of the small common canal into the  
*saccus lachrymalis* become callous, and of drawing on a  
purification, the communication between the nose and the eye  
will be left entirely disengaged ; and liberty by this means be-  
ing given to respiration, to make both the air alone, and the air  
mixed with the tears, to pass continually through it.

In fine, the action of these fluids may be assisted by the ap-  
plication of collyrium's, and by making frequent injections into  
*puncta lachrymalia* ; which, besides the common effects  
which may be naturally expected from them, will contribute to  
prevent the juice, that re-unites the wound made in the skin,  
from overstreightning the canal.

*The Cause of the general Trade-winds ; by Mr. Hadley. Phil.*  
*Transl. N° 437. p. 58.*

**M**r. Hadley thinks the causes of the general trade-winds  
do not to have been fully explained by any of those who  
have written upon that subject, for want of more particularly and di-  
rectly considering the share the diurnal motion of the earth  
has in the production of them : For, tho' this has been men-  
tioned by some amongst the causes of those winds, yet they  
have not proceeded to shew how it contributes to their produc-  
tion ; or else they have applied it to the explication of these phe-  
nomena, upon such principles as will appear upon examination  
not to be sufficient.

That the action of the sun is the original cause of these  
winds, all are agreed ; and that it does it by causing a greater  
refraction of the air in those parts, upon which its rays fall-  
ing perpendicularly, or nearly so, produce a greater degree of  
heat there than in other places ; by which means the air be-  
ing specifically lighter than the rest round about, the cooler  
air will by its greater density and gravity, remove it out of its  
place

place to succeed into it itself, and make it rise upward. But it seems this rarefaction will have no other effect than cause the air to rush in from all parts into the part where it is most rarefied, especially from the north and south, where the air is coolest, and not more from the east than the west, as is commonly suppos'd: So that setting aside the diurnal motion of the earth, the tendency of the air would be from every side towards that part, where the sun's action is most intense at the time; and so a N. W. wind be produced in the morning, and a N. E. in the afternoon alternately, on one side of the parallel of the sun's declination, and a S. W. or S. E. on the other.

That the perpetual motion of the air towards the west could not be deriv'd merely from the action of the sun upon it, appears more evidently from this: If the earth be supposed at rest, that motion of the air will be communicated to the superficial parts, and by little and little produce a revolution of the whole the same way, except there be the same quantity of motion given the air in a contrary direction in opposite parts at the same time, which is hard to suppose. But if the globe of the earth had before a revolution towards the east, this by the same means must be continually retarded: And if this motion of the air be suppos'd to arise from any action of its parts on one another, the consequence will be the same. For this reason it seems necessary to shew, how these phenomena of the trade-winds may be caus'd, without the production of any real general motion of the air westward. This will readily be done by taking in the consideration the diurnal motion of the earth: For, let us suppose the air in every part to keep an equal pace with the earth in its diurnal motion; in which case there will be no relative motion of the surface of the earth and air; and consequently, no wind: Then by the action of the sun on the parts about the equator, and the rarefaction of the air proceeding therewith, let the air be drawn down thither from the N. and S. parts. The parallels are each of them bigger than the other, as they approach to the equator, and the equator is bigger than the tropics, nearly in the proportion of 1000 to 917; and consequently, their difference in circuit about 2083 miles, and the surface of the earth at the equator moves so much faster than the surface of the earth with its air at the tropics. From which it follows, that the air as it moves from the tropics towards the equator, having a less velocity than the par-

of the earth it arrives at, will have a relative motion contrary to that of the diurnal motion of the earth in those parts, which being combined with the motion towards the equator, N. E. wind will be produced on this side of the equator, and a S. E. on the other. These, as the air comes nearer to the equator, will become stronger, and more and more easterly, and be due east at the equator itself, according to experience, by reason of the concourse of both currents from the N. and S. where its velocity will be at the rate of 2083 miles in the space of one revolution of the earth or natural day, and above 1 mile and  $\frac{1}{3}$  in a minute of time; which is greater than the velocity of the wind is suppos'd to be in the greatest storm, which, according to Dr. *Derham's* observations, is not above 1 mile in a minute. But it is to be consider'd, that before the air from the tropics can arrive at the equator, it must have gain'd some motion eastward from the surface of the earth or sea, whereby its relative motion will be diminish'd, and in several successive circulations, may be suppos'd to be reduced to the strength it is found to be of.

Thus Mr. *Hadley* thinks the N. E. winds on this side of the equator, and the S. E. on the other side, are fully accounted for. The same principle as necessarily extends to the production of the west trade-winds without the tropics; the air rarefied by the heat of the sun about the equatorial parts being remov'd to make room for the air from the cooler parts, must rise upwards from the earth; and as it is a fluid, it will then spread itself abroad over the other air; and so its motion in the upper regions must be to the N. and S. from the equator: Being got up at a distance from the surface of the earth, it will soon lose great part of its heat, and thereby acquire density and gravity sufficient to make it approach its surface again, which may be suppos'd to be by that time it is arriv'd at those parts beyond the tropics, where the westerly winds are found. Being suppos'd at first to have the velocity of the surface of the earth at the equator, it will have a greater velocity than the parts it now arrives at; and thereby become a westerly wind, with strength proportionable to the difference of velocity, which in several revolutions will be reduced to a certain degree, as is said before of the easterly winds at the equator. And thus the air will continue to circulate, and gain and lose velocity by turns from the surface of the earth or sea, as it approaches to, or recedes from the equator. From what has been said, it follows,

i. That

1. That without the assistance of the diurnal motion of the earth, navigation, especially easterly and westerly, would be very tedious, and to make the whole circuit of the earth would perhaps be impracticable.

2. That the N. E. and S. E. within the tropics must be compensated by as much N. W. and S. W. in other parts; and generally all winds from any one quarter must be compensated by a contrary wind some where or other; otherwise some change must be produced in the motion of the earth round its axis.

*An Account of the several Earthquakes, which have happen'd in New England, since the first Settlement of the English in that Country, especially of the last Earthquake Oct. 29. 1727; by Mr. Dudley. Phil. Trans. N° 431 p. 63.*

THAT *New England* is subject to earthquakes is certain; and we have had frequent accounts of it, since the first settlement of the *English* there, which is about 100 years preceeding 1727. The first and most considerable Mr. *Dudley* finds in history, and which seems to have been much like that on Oct. 29, 1727 (*vide* likewise an account of this last in *Phil. Trans.* N° 409. p. 124.) was on the 2d of June, 1638. This is said (by the author, a Gentleman of character and probity) 'to have been a great and fearful earthquake: It was heard, before it came, with a rumbling noise or low murmur like unto remote thunder; it came from the northward, and pass'd southward; as the noise approach'd near, the earth began to quake; and it came with length with that violence, as caus'd platters, tyles, &c. to fall down; yea, people were afraid of their houses; the shock was so violent and great, as that some being without doors could not stand, but were fain to catch hold of posts &c. About half an hour after, or less, came another noise and shaking, but not so loud nor strong as the former. Ships and vessels in the harbour were shaken, &c.' In 1658, there was another very great earthquake, but no particulars related. Jan. 31. 1660 there was a great earthquake. Jan. 26, 1662, about 6 o'clock at night there happened a earthquake which shook the houses, caus'd the inhabitants to run out into the streets, and the tops of several chimneys fell down. About the middle of the same night there was another shake; also in the morning following the earth shok

gain: In 1665, 1668 and 1669, the earth was shaken; since which we have also had several tremors of the earth, but not very considerable, till the terrible earthquake Oct. 29, 1727, which terrified and amazed the inhabitants from one end of the country to the other. As to the weather that preceeded it: Our winter in *January* and *February* was very moderate, and excepting a few cold days, the weather was pleasant, and no great frost in the ground. In the beginning of *March* there was a great deal of snow, and some cold weather, which soon went over; and on the 11th 5 minutes after 4 o'clock, the sun was eclips'd about 5 degrees, as near as Mr. *Dudley* could determine without an instrument; after which to the end of the month there was pleasant weather, rain at times, and once thunder and lightning. *April* for the most part had fair pleasant spring weather, and a plentiful rain in the beginning and latter end of the month. The beginning of *May* was also pleasant weather; the 9th, 10th, and 13th, a great deal of rain; the 18th white-frost; 24th and 25th cold weather; from that to the end of the month very dry. The beginning of *June* the same; abundance of thunder and lightning at times during the whole month. In *July* also, tho' we had some showers in different places, yet in general it was a very dry season, and a great deal of thunder and lightning also this month; the 3 last days of it so excessive hot, that there was no working or travelling by day, or sleeping by night. The beginning of *August* was also exceeding hot, and in particular the first day at night from the evening to midnight we had a continual coruscation or lightning all round the horizon; the noise scarce ever remembred; it was really terrible; tho' the thunder was not severe. Dry weather continued to the 10th, and then we had a plentiful rain all over the province, but our hot weather held on to the end of the month; and till about the middle of *September* we had very hot weather: So that take it all together, Mr. *Dudley* never knew so much hot weather in any one summer in his time. On the 16. Sept. he had such a violent storm from the north-east, as was never remember'd, for the fierceness and strength of the wind; blew down houses, barns, and a vast number of trees in orchards and woods; there also fell a great deal of rain the same time. In the month of *October*, preceding the earthquake, there was a pretty deal of cold weather; on the 2d a great deal of rain with a southerly wind; on the 25th at

at night, a hard frost; on the 26th winterish weather, and little snow; the 28th cold, the wind at north-west; the 29th the wind at north-west, tho' little of it, But cold: in the evening quite calm and a clear sky.

By this short journal of the weather the learned will be enabled, in some measure, to determine, how far our earth might be dispos'd to, or prepared for the earthquake that follow'd; first, by a long continu'd drought and excessive heat, whereby the earth became more porous, and abounded with exhalations or inflamed vapours, and which afterward being shut up by the succeeding great rains and frost, and thereby hinder'd from an ordinary and easy passage thro' the pores and common vents of the earth, work'd so much the more terribly and forcibly on one another. But philosophen not being hitherto agreed on the nature or certain causes of earthquakes, Mr. *Dudley* comes next to enquire what sort of earthquake that on Oct. 29. was.

*Gilbertus Jacchæus* in his *Institut. physicæ, cap. terræ motu* distinguishes earthquakes into 4 species; wherein he agrees with *Aristotle* and *Pliny*, according to whom the first species is a shake or trembling, and by them liken'd to the shaking fit of an ague. Mr. *Dudley* could not hitherto hear of any breach or opening of the earth, thro' the whole extent of this earthquake. It was said by some that were abroad that the earth sensibly rose up, and so sunk down again; but he much questions the truth of it: For, had there been any such succussion to raise the earth to any considerable height, the houses would certainly have tumbled down, or the exhalation have forced its way by some breach. Nor was our motion of the earth what *Aristotle* and *Pliny* call a pulse or a intermitting knocking, but one continued shake or trembling and therefore, must be ranked under the first species, viz. a tremor or shake, without altering the position of the earth and left every thing in the same state in which it found them except the falling down of the tops of some chimneys, stone walls, &c. without doors; dishes and some other things within doors; as shall be taken notice of farther on.

That this earthquake was of the first species is also prov'd from the sound that accompanied it; since tremulous and vibrating motions are proper to produce sounds, which bring Mr. *Dudley* to the third particular, viz. the noise or sound that accompanied, or immediately preceeded this earthquake. This, indeed, was very terrible and amazing; tho' he is a

to think it was thought more considerable by those within doors, than such as were without in the open air. Some took this noise for thunder; others compar'd it to the rattling of coaches and carts upon pavements, or frozen ground. One of Mr. *Dudley's* neighbours likend it to the shooting out of a load of stones from a cart under his window. For Mr. *Dudley's* own part, being perfectly awake, no' abed, he thought at first his servants, who lodged in a garret over his chamber, were halting along a trundle-bed: but, in truth, the noise that accompanies an earthquake seems to be *sonus sui generis*, and there is no describing it. This noise, as amazing as it was, in an instant of time, as one may say, was succeeded by a shake much more terrible. His house, which is large and well built, seem'd to be squeez'd or press'd up together, as tho' 100 screws had been at work to throw it down; and shook not only every thing in the house, particularly the bed under him, but the building itself, and every part of it so violently for the time, that he was really in great fear it would have tumbled down, and his family perish'd in the ruin. But thro' the good providence of God they receiv'd no harm.

As to the degree or greatness of the shake; this will best known from its effects. Mr. *Dudley* has already mention'd the falling of the tops of chimneys, dishes from shelves, china-ware, &c. doors unlatch'd, bells jangling, beds trembling, chairs moving, &c. A country farmer told him, he had 40 or 50 rods of stone wall thrown down by it: And tho' these effects be not very considerable, yet he cannot but be of opinion, that this earthquake for its species was as violent and terrible, as any we meet with in history: One of Mr. *Dudley's* neighbours, that was walking home at the very instant, told him, the noise first brought him to a stand, and that during the shake, the earth trembled in such a manner under him, that he was so far from attempting to continue his walk, that it was as much as he could do to keep upon his legs, and he expected every moment the earth would have open'd under him. Another that was riding home says, that upon the noise the earthquake made, his horse stood stock still, and during the shake, trembled to that degree, that he thought he would have fallen under him. The house dogs were likewise sensibly affected with the earthquake; some of them barking, others howling, and making strange and unusual noise. Nor was the earth alone affected with

this shake, but the sea also in the harbours, and the shipping small and great much mov'd with it. Mr. *Dudley* does not suppose it ever happens that earthquakes of this kind, of any extent, are equal or alike in all places; and accordingly he finds by information from the several towns, that the shake was much more moderate in some parts of the country than others.

As to the time and duration of the shock: The Boston news-papers fix the time at about 40 minutes after 10 o'clock at night; Mr. *Dudley*'s watch was not so much by 5 minutes. The 1. of November at midnight, which was 3 days after the earthquake, the moon changed. As to the duration of the first and great shock, whatever others may publish, he can by no means suppose it exceeded the space of a minute, if so long; and after this in the same night there were 4 or 5 lesser tremors; and at sundry times since, the earth trembled in different places, even to the 13. of November, but without any considerable effects or extent.

Lastly, as to the course and extent of the earthquake: Boston, the metropolis of New England, lies in Lat. 42 deg 25 min. N. and 4 hours 43 min. to the westward of London as the longitude was settled by Mr. *Bartle* of New England and Mr. *Hodgson* of London; and making Boston a centre, we have a certain account that this earthquake was felt in Kennbeck river to the eastward, and at Philadelphia to the westward, 150 leagues distant from each other upon a W. S. W. and E. N. E. course nearly; and no part of the intermediate country, that Mr. *Dudley* can understand, escaped the shake. The colonies of Rhode-Island, Connecticut, and New-York, that lie between New England and Pennsylvania being all affected, tho' not equally, particularly at Philadelphia, by a small shock. As to the opposite line or latitude, as we may call it, of the earthquake; two noted islands to the south-east, called Nantucket and Martha's Vineyard, about 8 miles distant from Boston (the first lying about 12 leagues in the sea, distant from the main land) had the earthquake. The English settlements towards the north-west, which hitherto did not exceed 40 or 50 miles from Boston, had all of them this earthquake very sensibly; and how far it might reach beyond them towards Canada, could not hitherto be said. By this calculation Mr. *Dudley* believes it will be found, that this earthquake was of a much greater extent than any hitherto taken notice of in history: As to the count-

the earthquake, or where it first began, he could not hitherto determine by all the information he could get: For, they write from *Rhode-Island*, *Connecticut*, *New-York*, and *Philadelphia*, all to the westward, that it was between the hours of 10 and 11 at night. The same is likewise affirmed from *Piscataqua*, *Casco-bay*, and *Kennebeck* river, which are to the eastward: So that hitherto it seems to him, that the earth, thro' the whole extent aforesaid, was shaken very near at the same time. Some of his neighbours are positive, that it came from the southward; while others again are positive, that where they were, it came from the north. But this is not to be wonder'd at; since as Mr. *Dudley* supposes, the subterraneous channels or caverns, thro' which the exhalation passes, are not in any one continu'd streight line, but branched out, and running upon all points of the compass, especially in such a vast extent of land.

A neighbour of Mr. *Dudley*'s that had a well 36 foot deep, about 3 days before the earthquake, was surpris'd to find the water, that us'd to be very sweet and limpid, stink to that degree that they could make no use of it, nor scarce bear the house when it was brought in; and imagining that some carrion was got into the well, he search'd the bottom, but found it clear and good, tho' the colour of the water was turn'd wheyish or pale. In about 7 days after the earthquake, the water began to mend, and in 3 days more it return'd to its former sweetnes and colour. Mr. *Dudley* was so credibly informed, that several springs and good watering places were some of them lower'd, and others quite sunk and lost with the earthquake. A Clergyman in a town about 20 miles distant from *Boston* assured him, that immediately after the earthquake, there was such a stink or strong smell of sulphur, that the family could scarce bear to be in the house for a considerable time that night. The like is also confirm'd in other places. Persons of credit do also affirm, that just before or in the time of the earthquake, they perceiv'd flashes of light. A Gentleman of probity from *Newbury*, own, situated between 30 and 40 miles to the N. N. E. of *Boston*, writes, that at 40 rods distance from his house, there is a fissure of the earth, and near 20 cart-loads of fine sand drawn out where the ground broke, and water boil'd out of a spring, and mixing with the sand, made a kind of magnire; but at the time of writing his letter, which was the 21. of November, the spring was become dry, and the ground

ground clos'd up again. Since the receipt of this letter Mr. Dudley understood, that the ground where this sand was thrown up, and round about it for a considerable distance, is solid clay for 20 or 30 foot deep, and nothing like sand ever be found there before : So that the exhalation forced this great quantity of sand thro' a very deep stratum of clay. He is all very well satisfied, that the earthquake was more violent in the towns to the north and north-east of Boston, than in those to the southward and westward ; and in some of them that are rock the earth shook but a few days after.

*An Extraordinary Effect of Lightning in communicating Magnetism ; by Dr. Cookson. Phil. Trans. N° 437. P. 74.*

**A** Tradesman of Wakefield in Yorkshire, having put up a great number of knives and forks in a large box ; some in cases or sheaths, and others not, of different sizes, and different persons making, in order to be sent beyond sea ; and having placed the box in the corner of a large room, there happen'd a sudden storm of thunder, lightning, &c. by which the corner of the room was damaged, the box split, and a good many knives and forks melted, the sheaths untouched. The owner emptying the box upon a counter where some nails lay, those who took up the knives that lay upon the nails, observed that the knives took up the nails. Upon this all of them were tried, and found to do the same, nay, to such a degree as to take up large nails, packing needles, and other iron things of considerable weight. Needles, or other things, placed upon a pewter dish, would follow the knife or fork, tho' held upon the dish, and would move along, as the knife or fork was mov'd, with several other odd appearances, one of which was, that tho' you heat the knives red hot, yet their power is the same when cold.

**Q.** How the knives and forks came by this magnetic virtue, or how lightning should be capable of communicating such virtue ?

*A farther Account of the extraordinary Effects of the Lightning at Wakefield ; by the same. Phil. Trans. N° 437. P. 75.*

**T**HIS storm of thunder and lightning happen'd the last end of July, 1731 ; and not only broke the glass and iron frames of the cross-chamber windows, but at the same

lit some studds in the corner of a wood-house ; and passing to a room, likewise split a large deal box, which stood in the south corner of the room, where the lightning enter'd, and spes'd a great many dozen of knives and forks, which were lay'd up in the box, all over the room.

Some of the knives and forks were melted, others snapped in twain ; others had their hafts burnt ; others their sheaths either singed or burnt, and others not. But what was most remarkable, was, that upon laying them on a compter, where there were iron nails, rings, &c. it was observ'd, that when any of them were taken up, there hung a nail or ring at the end of each of them : Most of them were tried, and found to do the same.

One of the knives tho' made use of for almost a year and a half to all manner of purposes, yet still retain'd the magnetic virtue to an extraordinary degree.

Fig. 4. Plate IV. represents an horizontal plan of the room, box, and knives, and direction of the lightning ; A the south angle of the room ; B the direction of the lightning ; C the solar or magnetic line ; D the box with the knives, lying in a direction parallel to the longer sides of the box.

Q. Whether the knives and forks lying in such a direction as either to coincide, or make but an acute angle with the magnetic line, might any ways contribute to their imbibing this magnetic virtue ; since a bar of iron, placed in such a direction, shall in a little time receive a transient polarity ; and if it continue a long time in that position, a fix'd and permanent one ?

Q. Whether the knives and forks lying in such a position, and being violently heated by the lightning, might not, as they cool'd, strongly imbibe this magnetic virtue : Since a bar of iron heated and placed in a certain direction to cool, will sooner imbibe this power than in the same direction cold ?

Q. The polarity of the compass has been alter'd by lightning, as may be seen in the *Philosophical Transactions* : Now how should lightning be capable of communicating such a power in this case ; since it is plain that it has taken it away in another.

*The Description and Use of an arithmetical Machine, invented by M. Christian Ludovicus Gersten.* Phil. Trans. N° 438. p. 79.

SIR Samuel Morland, for ought M. Gersten knows, was the first who undertook to perform arithmetical operations by wheel-work. To this end he invented two machines, one for addition and subtraction; the other for multiplication, which he published in London in 1673, in small twelves. He gives no more than the external figure of the machines, and shews the method of working them. But as by this every one who has any skill in mechanics, will be able to guess, how the internal parts ought to be contriv'd; so it cannot be denied that these are two different machines, independent of each other; that the last, which is for multiplication, is nothing other than an application of the Neipperian bones on four moveable disks; consequently, that his invention alone is not sufficient to perform justly all arithmetical operations.

After Sir Samuel, the celebrated M. Leibnitz, S. Poleni and M. Leupold took this undertaking in hand, and attempted to perform it after different methods.

The first published his scheme in 1709, in the *Miscellanea Berolinensia*; but then he only gave the outward figure of the machine. S. Poleni communicated his, explaining at the same time its internal construction, in his *Miscellanea* of the same year 1709. M. Leupold's machine, together with those of M. Leibnitz, and S. Poleni were inserted in his *Theatrum arithmeticо-geometricum*, published at Leipzig in 1727, after the author's death, yet imperfect, as is owned in the book itself.

Besides these, M. Gersten learned from several French journals that Charles Pascal invented one, which however he never had the sight of. The description of this machine is since published by M. Gallon in his collection of machines and inventions, approved by the academy of sciences at Paris, (publish'd in French at Paris, An. 1735. in quarto in six tomes) in tome IV. p. 137; and likewise another by M. Lespine tom. IV. p. 137; and three more by M. Hellerin de Boistissandeau, tom. V. p. 103, 117, and 121.

M. Gersten took the hint of his machine from that of M. Leibnitz, which put him upon thinking how the internal structure might be contrived: But as it was not possible for him to hit upon the original ideas of that great man, an exact enquiry into the nature of arithmetical operations furnished him

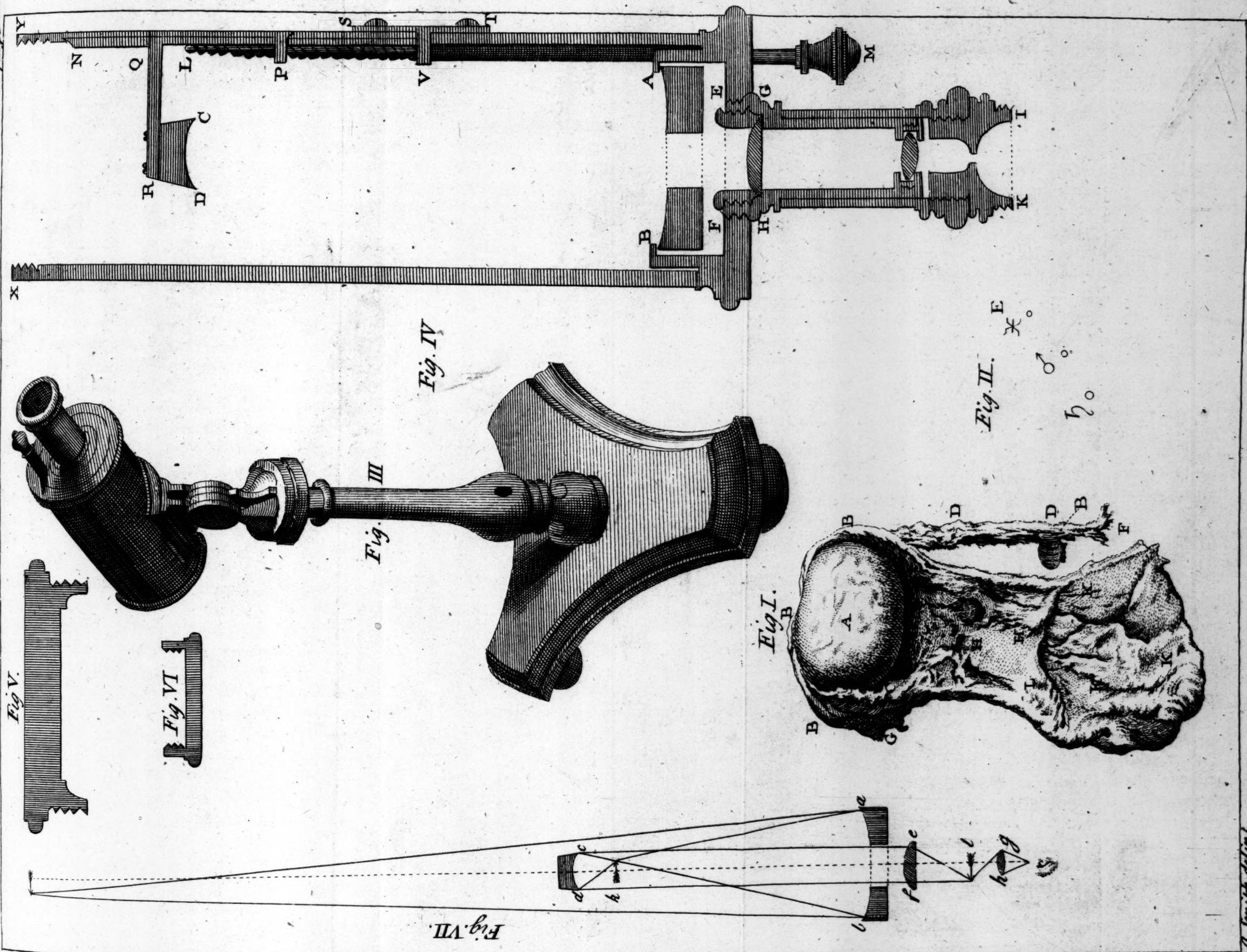
on at last with others, which he express'd in a rough model of wood, and shew'd to some patrons and friends, who encouraged him to have another made of brass. But the want of an officer, able enough to execute his ideas, made him delay till 1725, when he set about it, and finished the whole work, fitted to a reckoning not exceeding 7 places. And in December of the same year he laid this machine before the Landgrave of *Hesse-Darmstadt*, and the hereditary prince his son, to whom he demonstrated the mechanism of the whole invention.

He owns that the gracious reception it met with from both their highnesses, as well as the express recommendation of M. *Wieger*, one of the prince's privy council, would have been powerful inducements for him to have published an account of his machine; but for the uncertainty he was under, whether possibly M. *Leibnitz*'s machine had not been brought to its perfection; in which case there is no doubt but the operation of his machine, if it would really perform what is promised in the description, would have been easier than M. *Gersten*'s; and consequently preferable to it, provided its structure did not prove too intricate, nor the working of it take up too much time.

But now being certain, that none of M. *Leibnitz*'s invention has yet appear'd in such a state of perfection, as to have answer'd the effect proposed, and that these of M. *Gersten* differ from all those mentioned above, fancying at the same time, that such as understand mechanics, will find it plain, practicable, and exact, in regard to its various effects, he makes no scruple to publish this invention, the product it is of his younger years, with the several amendments he has since added to it: The particulars of which are as follows:

There are as many sets of wheels and moveable rulers as there are places in the numbers to be calculated. Fig. I. plate V. represents three of them, by which one may easily receive the rest; A A the first system or the figures of units, according to its internal structure; B B and C C the 2d and 3d system, *viz.* of tens and hundreds &c &c, according to their internal form. First, as to A A, where is a flat bottom of brass plate, which may be screw'd on, either upon a particular iron frame, or only upon a strong piece of wallnut-tree, riveted with the grain cross'd. In this system are two moveable rules gggg and kkk; the first of which he calls the operator;

operator, the 2d the determinator. There are besides, two wheel-works, the upper one is for addition and subtraction; the lower one serves for multiplication and division. The upper one is provided first with *a*, an oblique ratchet-wheel of 10 teeth, of what diameter you please; on which, however, depends the length and breadth of the system itself. This wheel has a stop *r*, with a depressing spring *s*; under the wheel *a* is a smaller wheel *b* of the same shape. Both *a* and *b* are rivetted together, and fixed on a common axis. Under the wheel *b* lies a 3d *f*, which is a common tooth-wheel of 20 or more teeth, according as one pleases. It is larger than *b*, and smaller than *a*, turns about the same axis with the other two above it, and upon it is fixed a stop *h*, with the spring *d*, which catches the oblique teeth of the wheel *b*. Immediately under this wheel lies the upperpart of the operator, which may be best made of iron or steel. The wheels may be all made of brass, except the upper one. The operator is of the same thickness all over, and in its upper part are fixed as many round steel pins, as there are teeth in the wheel *f*, which are to catch the teeth of this wheel, and move it backwards and forwards. The height of those pins ought exactly to answer the thickness of the wheel. The axis of the wheels *a* and *b* is kept perpendicularly by the bridge *e e*, which is screw'd to the bottom, as appears by the Fig. The operator *g g g g* moves on the side, above, and in the middle in two brass grooves *i i i* and *q q*; about *D* it jet out, on which projection a piece of iron *b* must be well fastened, having a strong pin, on which the handle *z* fits, as may be seen in the system *B B*. The side itself *D* slides in another groove *s s*, and in its inner corner joins to it the determinator *k k k*, of the same thickness with the operator, the shape of which is sufficiently express'd in the Fig. This also slides up and down, on the one side in the groove *s s*, and *v* on the other side, where it is smallest, in a small piece *r*, and where it is broadest above in the operator itself, which is either hollow'd out into another groove, or fil'd off obliquely. The sliding part of the determinator ought afterwards also to be fitted to *v*. Its chief part is the lock *u*, standing perpendicular on its broad part: It is drawn separately in Fig. 4. as at *B B*, on which is the sliding stop *c*, that is pressed down by its spring *d*, but rais'd by the trickler *aa*; that trickler has a pin *b*, on which is screw'd on the small handle *ll* (in the systems *B B* and *C C*, Fig. 1.) In the brass bottom *A A* (or *aa* Fig. 1.) you must file out 10 ratchet-teeth or kerfs, purpos'dly for the stop



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f this lock, or which is better, you may insert into the brass bottom a small piece of iron, filed out according to this figure. The partition and length of these ratchet-teeth in the bottom must fit exactly with the circumference of the wheel *f*, (in the system A A, Fig. 1.) with this direction, that if the lock be kept by the uppermost tooth in the bottom, the operator can-  
ot be mov'd at all; but when by pressing down the tricke  
*a* (Fig. 4.) the determinator is shov'd down, and is stopp'd by  
the 2d or 3d tooth in the bottom, the operator being likewise  
drawn down, as far as the determinator permits, makes the  
stop *c* (in the system A A, Fig. 1.) slide over one or two  
teeth of the second wheel *b*; consequently the same stop *c* must  
slide over 9 teeth, when the lock of the determinator will  
stand before the tenth tooth in the bottom, and the operator is  
pull'd down so far. If you have a mind to apply these ratchet-  
teeth on the out-side of the plate  $2^{\circ}, 2^{\circ}$ , that covers the whole,  
you may fit the lock to it accordingly: But in this case the  
covering plate must be well fastened.

For multiplication and division, there is properly in each system but one wheel likewise divided into ten ratchet-teeth, on which is rivetted the round plate *l*, on which are engrav'd the numbers or figures. These wheels have no occasion for any bridge, but may turn about a strong pin of steel, solder'd to the bottom. The ratchet-wheel *m m* rests on one side upon the determinator, and upon a piece of brass of the same thick-  
ness, to which are fastened the stop *n*, and the spring *p*. Up-  
on the operator is another stop *o*, with its spring; which stop  
has a small arm at *o*, which is check'd by a small studd, to  
hinder the spring's pressing the stop lower down than it ought:  
By which contrivance it is so order'd, that after the operator is  
lid down as far as it can go, in being slid up again, the stop *o*  
will turn but one tooth of the wheel *m m*. The round plate  
has in its middle a small hollow axis, on which are turned  
first two shoulders, and then a screw: This screw in the system  
A A is an ordinary one, winding from the left to the right.

But as each system ought to have communication with the preceeding one, tho' not with that which follows; to this end a projecting tooth of communication made of steel  $3^{\circ}$  is ri-  
vetted to the upper plane of the uppermost wheel *a*. This  
tooth must be placed exactly on the point of a tooth of the  
wheel, and by its revolution catches and turns every time but  
one tooth of the uppermost wheel of the preceeding system,  
sliding over the following one, (if there be any) without  
touching.

touching it. For this reason the planes of the brass bottoms in all the systems ought to incline a little. This will best appear from the vertical section, Fig. 2. (cut in Fig. 1. in the direction from  $s$  to  $f$ ) in which  $a$  is the brass bottom,  $H H$  wood-bottom,  $g$  the operator,  $i$  the groove,  $f$  the 3d common tooth-wheel,  $b$  the 2d wheel,  $a$  the first or uppermost ratchet wheel,  $e$  the bridge,  $z^{\circ}$  the covering plate, and  $z^{\circ}$  the tooth communication. All these pieces are represented of the same thickness; but every artist will easily know, where to add or take off.

Fig. 5. shews the plan and true disposition of the teeth in several uppermost wheels; that is to say, the parallel lines  $A$  and  $C D$  ought always to cut the brass bottoms (which are like one another in length and breadth) length-wise into two equal parts: Then the perpendicular intersection  $E F$  will determine the centres  $a$  and  $b$  of the two wheels  $H$  and  $G$ . The stop  $r$  ought every time to hold its wheel in such a manner that the points of two teeth coincide with the line  $A B$  or  $C D$ . The obliquity of the teeth is the same in both, with the difference, however, that in  $G$ , which is a wheel of the system  $A A$  (Fig. 1.) they are cut in from the left to the right, but in  $H$ , (a wheel of the system  $B B$ ) from the right to the left. In making the work more durable, the teeth are not to be cut out into quite sharp points, but blunted a little, as in the wheel  $H$ . The nicety of the whole machine chiefly consists in placing the centre  $a$  and  $b$ , or (which amounts to the same thing) after having chosen the breadth of the brass bottoms in determining the diameter of the uppermost wheel: For, if it should prove so large, as that the two wheels  $H$  and  $G$  should very near touch each other; the tooth of communication will be short, its operation will be of a small force, and the wheels themselves will require a very great exactness, lest by turning about the wheel  $H$ , and the tooth of communication standing in the position, as represented in Fig. 5. a tooth of the wheel  $H$  may touch it, and stop the motion. Whereas, on the other hand, supposing the centres at the same distance, and the diameters of both wheels less, the tooth of communication will be longer: Then such an exactness is not required in the wheel, yet more force is necessary for making the tooth of communication lay hold the better. Furthermore, it will be well to make the undermost common tooth-wheel as large as you can.

From the construction of this first system, with which the 3d, 5th, 7th, &c. entirely agree, one may easily imagine

d, 4th, 6th, 8th, &c. for every thing there is likewise the same, only that it is inverted: So that what in the first stands on the right hand, is in the second on the left hand.

The plate for multiplication has on its hollow axis, as has been said before, two shoulders; the lowermost of which is very small, the sum of its height, the thickness of the plate of the wheel *m m*, and of the operator, must amount to as much as answers to the height of the bridge *ee*. On both ends of the brass-bottoms the two pieces of brass  $4^{\circ}, 4^{\circ}$ , of the same height, are rivetted on. This being done, at last the covering plates  $2^{\circ}, 2^{\circ}$  is prepared and screw'd on the piece of brass  $4^{\circ}, 4^{\circ}$ . If the machine be made pretty large, the covering plate must be screw'd fast, not only to the bridge *ee*, but likewise not far from the wheel of multiplication. It must be provided not only with round holes, thro' which are to go the axis of each uppermost wheel *a*, and the hollow axis of the plate *l*; but must also have a long slit, in which the operator and determinator may be mov'd up and down; and last of all a small window over the plate of multiplication, through which the figure or number engraved on the plate may appear distinctly. To the projecting screw *l* of the plate *l*, is fitted an handle *ff*, joined to an index in the shape of a scythe. The screw in the system *A A* is a common screw; consequently the roundels of the scythe must turn from the left to the right: But in the system *B B*, where it ought to be inverted, like all the other parts, the scythe must turn from the right to the left, as in the Fig. The use of this is to shew which way the wheels are to be turned; and the screws are to prevent the machine's being hurt by unskillful hands.

On the side of the determinator, *viz.* on that piece which cannot be press'd down, is also screw'd a small index, which may be directed to such numbers or figures, as is required. These figures are to be engrav'd in the covering plate, according to the Fig. and the distance depends on their ratchet-teeth (Fig. 4.) in the brass bottom.

On the axis of each uppermost wheel *a* (which axis must be made square, as far as it projects over the covering plate) is fixed a thin round silver plate *xx* (in the systems *B B* and *C C*) or *ad* in Fig. 3. yet so as it may not rub against the covering plate. It has a hollow axis *bc* (Fig. 3.) on which is a right or left screw, according to the system it belongs to, and a small shoulder *c*. To the screw is screw'd the handle *ss* (in the systems *B B* and *C C* Fig. 1.) which is vertically flat

on the extremity, in order to turn by it the plate and wheel. The plate, as appears by the Fig. is divided by three concentric circles into two rings, in the outermost of which are engraved the numbers for addition; in the innermost those for subtraction. This plate only shall hereafter be called the silver plate; the first ring the addition-ring: the second ring the subtraction-ring: Moreover two indexes  $w$  and  $y$  are screwed to the covering plate;  $w$  shews the numbers of the outermost, or addition-ring, and  $y$  those of the subtraction-ring. They have hinges, that they may be lifted up, and the silver plate taken out or put in again: Their curvature serves for a direction, which way the plates ought to be turned. A skilful artificer will be able to give them a neater and handsomer shape than in the draught, where the numbers are not cover'd.

All this being done, there remains now the figures or numbers to be engrav'd, in the following manner: Place each uppermost wheel  $a$  (in the system A A) in such a manner, that the tooth of communication be ready to catch (as in G Fig. 5,) which may easily be felt. Observe in the silver plate, when the index  $w$  points; and there engrave the number or figure 9, lower down in the subtraction-ring, where the index  $y$  points, engrave the cypher 0. After this divide both rings into 10 equal parts, one of which is already design'd for 9 in the addition, and another for 0 in the subtraction ring: Then observe which way the wheel turns, if from the right to the left, as in system B B: Then you must from the engraved number 9 in the addition-ring, towards the right, engrave 0 next; then 1, 2, 3, 4, &c. and in the subtraction-ring also towards the right, from the already engrav'd 0, first engrave 9, then 8, 7, 6, &c. in an inverted order. But if the wheel turns from the left to the right, as in the systems A A and C C, you engrave the numbers or figures in the same order, but from the right to the left, as may be seen in B B and C C. Fig. 1.

In the multiplication wheels  $m m$  you must conduct the index  $ff$  exactly to the window, as it is drawn in the system B B, mark the place on the round multiplication-plate under the window, and engrave upon it the cypher or 0; then make by two concentric circles a ring upon this plate, and divide this ring into 10 equal parts, and after the 0 (already engrav'd) engrave on the numbers, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, in the same order as it was done in the addition-ring of the silver plate of the same system. Last of all, if you think fit, you may screw on thin ivory plates, to note upon them the numbers that

e to be calculated ; particularly a long small one on that side of the slit of the determinator, where there are no numbers, and likewise two shorter broader ones, one under the window of multiplication, the other above the silver plate. All this together composes a machine, by the help of which you may perform all the four arithmetical rules or operations. The way working it is, as follows :

1. As to addition : For instance, if you are to add 32 and 9 ; because the hindermost system A A, in the Fig. which ought to represent the place of units, is not cover'd, let us take the system B B for the place of units, and the system C C the place of tens ; turn the silver plates  $\times \times$  in these two systems, that the indexes  $w w$  point to the two numbers 5 and 9 ; then make the determinators,  $ll$ ,  $ll$ , point also to 3 and 2 : Next take one of the two operators, for instance, in B, and pull it down as far as you can, and move it upwards again. This done, the number 1 in the silver plate in B B will come by this means under the index  $w$ , and the number 6 of the silver plate in the system C C under its index at the same time, which is 61, the sum 59 and 2. After this move the operator of the system C C also up and down, when instead of 9 will come under the index ; consequently, you have 91 under the index's  $w w$ , which is the sum required of 59 and 32 added together. The reason of it is plain : For, by pulling down the operator of the system B B so far, the stop  $c$  of the hindermost or common tooth-wheel  $f$  (*vide* system A A) will slide over two teeth of the middlemost ratchet-wheel  $b$  ; and by moving the operator up again, the same stop  $c$  will turn the two ratchet-wheels  $a$  and  $b$  together, and cause the stop  $c$  of the great or uppermost wheel  $a$  to slide over two teeth : at the same time the tooth of communication  $z^o$  will move forward one tooth of the uppermost ratchet-wheel in the system C ; consequently, on the silver plate in B B, instead of 9, the number 1 ; and in system C C, instead of 5, the number 6 must appear under their indexes  $w w$  : And so for the same reason having pulled up and down the operator of the system C C, the number 6 pointed to by the index must be at last changed to 9.

2. As to subtraction. Suppose 40 the sum, from which you are to subtract 24 : Here you must put your sum 40 in the subtraction-rings ; that is to say, turn the cypher 0 in the system B, and the number 4 in the system C C, under the indexes  $w w$ , as is represented in the Fig. Set the determinators at 24,

as

as in addition ; likewise move the operators only once up and down, the remainder 16 will appear under the indexes yy. As to the reason of this operation ; when you consider, that the numbers in the subtraction-rings are engrav'd in an inverted order, as is said before, you will find that it is the same as in addition.

3. As to multiplication : For instance ; if you are to multiply 43 by 3, bring the o in all your addition-rings to the indexes, as also in all your multiplication-plates in the windows. Write down (which is more particularly necessary, the numbers be larger than in this instance) the multiplicand 43 upon the ivory plates near the 2 determinators in the systems BB and CC : But you may write the multiplicand 3 only on the ivory-plate under the window of the system BB. Set the determinators at 43 ; then move your operators successively as often up and down, till there appear in both windows the number 3, then you will see on your addition-ring under the indexes, the product 129.

It is easy to understand, that as multiplication is nothing else than a repeated addition, the machine does also perform its operation by a repeated addition only : For, the number which appears in the window of the system BB, shews how many times you have added the number 3, pointed by the determinator to itself, which, when done 3 times, is 9. And so the same number 3, which appears in the window of the system CC after your operation, shews how many times you have added the number 4 to itself. It is needless to observe that besides the 2 systems BB and CC, there must be suppos'd another, not express'd in the Fig. which will shew the number 1 of the product 129.

4. As to division. If you are, for instance, to divide 40 by 3 ; set your dividend 40 in the subtraction-rings under the indexes yy, in the system BB and CC ; turn the index ff, ff near the windows to make o appear ; write your divisor near the determinator of the system CC, and let the determinator at 3 ; pull the operator up and down, then you will have 1 under the index y, and 1 likewise in the window. By this you see, that you cannot work farther in this system CC ; because you cannot subtract 3 from 1 : You must therefore, go on, to the other figure of the dividend, viz. 7 and in the system BB set the determinator again at 3 : This being done, the first pulling of the operator up and down will produce 1 in the window, and 7 in the subtraction-ring

under the index ; and the number 1 which remain'd before the system CC will be changed into 0. Now, as 7 is more than 3, you must work on accordingly : Having done twice more, you will find that there remains under the index y but 1 (which is the numerator of your fraction) and below in the two windows the quotient 13. When you consider that division is nothing else but a repeated subtraction, you will also easily understand the reason of this operation.

For the clearer conceiving the method of proceeding with this machine in larger numbers, M. Gersten explains it by the following examples.

Supposing there are six systems  $a, b, c, d, e, f$ ; let all the numbers pointed to by the indexes  $ww$  be in A B; those which are to be pointed by the determinators, in C D; and those which are seen in the windows, in E F. First of all, you must

	f	e	d	c	b	a
A	0	0	0	0	0	0
B	—	—	—	—	—	—
C	—	—	3	5	6	3
D	—	—	—	—	—	—
E	0	0	0	0	0	0
F	—	—	—	—	—	—
	—	—	—	—	5	8

nothing may appear but 0 : Write the number 3563 near the determinator, in the systems  $a, b, c, d$ , and direct them accordingly : The other number 58 you must likewise write down, but under the windows in system  $a$  and  $b$ , as you see in this scheme. Move the several operators, which are moveable, successively as often up and down, till 8 appear below in the windows, and you will have under the indexes above 8504, the product of  $3563 \times 8$  : And so the numbers of the machine will appear thus.

Next advance your multiplicand 3563 from the right to the left; that is to say, place the determinator in the system  $b$  at 3, in  $c$  at 6, in  $d$  at 5, in  $e$  at 3; and reduce every number in the windows to 0, except in the system  $a$ : As may be seen in the following scheme.

	f	e	d	c	b	a
A	0	2	8	5	0	4
B	—	—	—	—	—	—
C	—	—	3	5	6	3
D	—	—	—	—	—	—
E	0	0	8	8	8	8
F	—	—	—	—	5	8

Then

	f	e	d	c	b	a
A	o	2	8	5	o	4
C	-	-	3	5	6	3
E	o	o	o	o	o	8

Then pull all the operators <sup>up</sup> successively in *b*, *c*, *d* and *e*, up <sup>and</sup> down, till 5 appear in the windows below, and you will find at last under the indexes 206654, the product of  $3563 \times 58$ .

	f	e	d	c	b	a
A	z	o	6	6	5	4
C	-	-	3	5	6	3
E	5	5	5	5	8	8

	f	e	d	c	b	a
A	2	o	6	6	5	4
C	-	-	3	5	6	3
E	o	o	o	o	o	o

But if you are to divide again 206654 by 3563, you must place the dividend above in the substraction rings under the indexes. In the windows below every figure must be o, in the same manner as in multiplication; and write the divisor under the dividend, according to vulgar arithmetic, and as in the figure here annex'd.

If you direct the determinators in *e*, *d*, *c*, *b* to their numbers, and subtract this divisor by pulling up and down the operators as often as you can, you will have in the windows in *e*, *d*, *c*, *b* every where 5; but on the silver-plates there will remain 28504. Now advancing your divisor from the left to the right, bringing to the windows in *d*, *c*, *b* all the cyphers o, and working as before, there will at last appear on the silver-plates nothing at all, but below in the windows 5888 as may be seen in the following scheme.

	f	e	d	c	b	a
A	c	o	o	o	o	o
C	-	-	3	5	6	5
E	5	8	8	8	8	8

And here you have only this to observe, that in such cases you cut off all the hindermost figures of the numbers in E F, except that which stands under the first figure of the divisor; what remains is your quotient.

If it be objected that this machine cannot be fitted for many and long numbers, as one would please; because the multiplication of so many systems would require too great force for one operator to move so many wheels, kept

spring

ings, supposing that all the teeth of communication should only catch; M. Gersten owns that this objection is but too well grounded: However he cannot help observing at the same time, that this defect can hardly be avoided, in any arithmetical machine, for performing all those operations of itself, without the help of the mind: For there must certainly be a particular system for each place of figures, which are to communicate with the next; consequently, as the systems increase in number, the force, requisite to move them all, must likewise increase. Besides, it ought to be consider'd, of what size such a machine ought to be, which might serve for common use. M. Gersten thinks few calculations would be requir'd, for which 14 or 16 systems might not suffice. That which he made was of 7 systems, as has been already mention'd: The disposition of it was neither so well contriv'd, as he has explain'd it, nor were its several parts so well executed, as a good artificer might have done; yet those 7 systems were very easily put in motion: And if in a machine for 14 figures, made by a skilful hand, it could not be so easily practicable, this defect, he believes, might be easily remedied, by applying the other hand in the 5th or 6th system to the handle *ss*, in order to ease and assist the operator.

*Of the Figure of the Earth and the Variation of Gravity on the Surface; by Mr. James Stirling. Phil. Trans. N° 438. p. 98.*

THE centrifugal force, arising from the diurnal rotation of the earth, depresseth it at the poles, and renders it protuberant at the equator, as has been lately advanced by Sir Isaac Newton, and long ago by Polybius, according to Strabo in the second book of his Geography: But tho' it be of an oblate spheroidal figure, yet the kind of that spheroid has not hitherto been discover'd; and therefore Mr. Stirling supposes it to be the common spheroid, generated by the rotation of an ellipsis about its lesser axis; tho' he find by computation, that it is only nearly, and not accurately such. He likewise supposes the density to be every where the same from the centre to the surface, and the mutual gravitation of the particles towards one another to decrease in the duplicate ratio of their distances: And then the following rules will follow from the nature of the spheroid.

1. Let ADBE (Fig. 6. Plate V.) be the meridian of an oblate spheroid; DE the axis; AB the diameter of the equator, and C the centre: Take any point on the surface, as F, from which draw FC to the centre, FG, perpendicular to the surface at F, meeting CB in G, and FH cutting the line CG; so that CH may be to GH as 3 to 2. A body at F will gravitate in the direction FH; and that the mean force of gravity on the surface will be to the excess of the gravity at the pole above that at F, as the mean diameter, multiplied into the square of the radius, is to one fifth of the difference of the longest and shortest diameters, multiplied into the square of the co-sine of latitude at F.

2. The decrement of gravity from the pole to the equator is proportional to the square of the co-sine of latitude; or which comes to the same thing, the increment of gravity from the equator to the pole is proportional to the sine of latitude. Hitherto Mr. Stirling has consider'd the variation of gravity, which arises from the spheroidal figure, while it does not turn round its axis: But if it doth, the direction of gravity will be in the line FG, perpendicular to the surface; and its variation now arising both from the figure and centrifugal force, will be 5 times greater than what arises from the figure alone; as will appear from the proportion of the lines FH and FG, the former being to the latter, as the whole force of gravity at F, while the spheroid is at rest, to the force with which a body descends at F, while it turns round its axis.

3. From this last article it appears, that one fifth of the variation of gravity is occasion'd by the figure of the spheroid, and the remaining four fifths by the centrifugal force. And whereas the earth could not be of an oblate spheroidal figure, unless it turned round its axis; nor could it turn round its axis, without putting on that figure: The diminution of gravity towards the equator, known by the experiments with pendulum's, prove both the rotation and oblate spheroidal figure of the earth.

4. The mean force of gravity on the surface is to the centrifugal force at any point F, as a rectangle under the radius and mean diameter to a rectangle under the co-sine of latitude, and four fifths of the difference of the longest and shortest diameters. And at the equator, where the co-sine of latitude becomes equal to the radius, the mean force of gravity is to the centrifugal force, as the mean diameter to four fifths

ths of the longest and shortest diameters. This article is found from the proportion of the lines F H and G H ; the former being to the latter, as the force of gravity to the centrifugal force.

5. The proportion of the diameters of the earth will be found in the following manner. The moon revolves about the earth in  $27d\ 7^h\ 43'$ , or in 39343 minutes; and her mean distance is about  $59 \frac{1}{2}$  semidiameters of the earth, according to *De la Hire's* and *Flamsteed's* tables, but near  $60 \frac{1}{2}$  semidiameters by *Halley's*. Mr. *Stirling*, therefore, takes 60 for the mean distance, till it be better known: Then according to the nature of gravity, as the cube of the moon's distance is to the semidiameter of the earth, or as 216000 to unity, so is 47870000, the square of the periodic time of the moon to 66, the square of the number of minutes, in which another moon would revolve about the earth at the distance of one semidiameter: And as this last number to 2062096, the square of 1436, the number of minutes in a sidereal day, so unity to 287.7; which would shew the proportion of the centrifugal force at the equator to the mean force of gravity. (by Corol. 2. Prop. 4. lib. 1. Princip. Newton.) were it not for the action of the sun on the moon: Therefore (by Corol. 17. Prop. 66. lib. 1. Princip.) as the square of the sidereal year to the square of the periodic time of the moon, so it is, as 179 to unity, so is 287.7 to 1.6, which being added to 287.7, makes 289.3. And therefore as unity to 289 (neglecting the fraction which is uncertain) so is the centrifugal force at the equator to the mean force of gravity on the surface. And thence (by article 4.) as 289 to  $\frac{1}{4}$ , so is the mean diameter to the difference of the longest and shortest: And therefore, as the axis is to the equatorial diameter; so is 07 to 231; or in smaller numbers, as 231 to 232, the same as Sir Isaac Newton found in a different manner: For, 07 makes it as 230 to 231; and as 230 to 231, so is 231 to 2.004.

6. In the same manner the proportion of the diameters of any planet may be found, if it have a satellite: For instance, Jupiter, he turns about his axis in  $9^h\ 56'$ , or in 596 minutes: And his third satellite revolves about him in  $7^d\ 3^h\ 42'$ , or in 10302.6 minutes, at the distance of 15.141 of his semidiameters. Therefore, as the cube of 15.141 to unity, so is the square of 10302.6 to 30579, the square of the number of minutes, in which a satellite would revolve about him

at the distance of his semidiameter. And as this last number is to 355216, the square of 596, so is unity to  $11\frac{5}{8}$ , or the centrifugal force at his equator to the mean force of gravity on his surface. There is no need of correcting this number as in the former article; because the periodic time of Jupiter round the sun is vastly greater than that of his third satellite round him. Mr. Stirling has chose the third satellite before any of the rest; because its greatest elongation was observed by Dr. Pound, with a micrometer adapted to a telescope 12 foot long; and he also took the diameter of Jupiter by the transit of the satellite, which is a much more exact way than with a micrometer. But as the planes of Jupiter's satellites almost coincide with the plane of his equator, the diameter determin'd by the transit of the satellite, is his greatest, and the distance of the satellite, which ought to have been given in his mean diameters, is assigned in his greatest: At which reason the force of gravity, already found, must be augmented in the triplicate ratio of his greatest diameter to his mean one; that is, if  $a$  represent the mean diameter, and the difference of the longest and shortest, in the proportion of  $2a + 3d$  to  $2a$  very nearly. Hence, as the centrifugal force at his equator, to the mean force of gravity on his surface, so is unity to  $11\frac{5}{8} \times \frac{2a + 3d}{2a}$ . And (by art.

$$11\frac{5}{8} \times \frac{2a + 3d}{2a} : 1 :: a : \frac{4}{5} d, \text{ or } 20aa = 186$$

$+ 279dd$ ; which makes  $a$  to  $d$ , as 108 to 10: And then the axis is to the equatorial diameter, as 108—5 to 108+5; or as 103 to 113; that is, as 12 to  $13\frac{1}{3}$ ; which accurately agrees with the observations both of Dr. Pound and Mr. Bradley, made with Huygens's long telescope; the former making it as 12 to 13; and the latter as 25 to 27, which is very nearly the same. And if this theory agree so well with observations in Jupiter, there is no doubt but it will be more exact in the earth, whose diameters are much nearer equality.

7. By experiments made at Jamaica (vide Phil. Trans. N° 432. p. 302.) in Lat. 18. with a very curious clock, contriv'd by Mr. Graham, it was found that the London pendulum was slower there by 2' 6" in a sidereal day, than at London. It was found by experiments made with thermometers, that were to be allowed for the lengthening of the pendulum by heat: and therefore it was retarded only 1' 57" by the de-

ent of gravity. So that while a pendulum at *London* makes 86164 vibrations, the number of seconds in a sidereal day, the same at *Jamaica* does only give 86047 vibrations. Therefore the force of gravity at *London* is to that in the latitude of 18 degrees, as the square of 86164 to the square of 86047; that is, very nearly as 1106 to 1103. And (by article 1, 2,) if  $a$  denote the mean diameter of the earth,  $d$  the difference of the greatest and smallest  $a - \frac{c ed}{rr}$  will denote the force of gravity in general in any latitude, whose cosine is the radius as  $c$  to  $r$ : Where if in the place of  $c$  there be substituted the cosines of  $51^{\circ} 32'$  and  $18^{\circ}$ ; that is of the latitudes of *London* and *Jamaica*, we shall have the force of gravity at the former to that at the latter, as  $a - \frac{1387}{19045} d$  to  $a - \frac{19045}{191} d$ ; that is, as 1106 to 1103. Whence the mean diameter of the earth will be to the difference of the axis and equatoreal diameter, as 191 to 1; and thence (by article 4.) as the mean gravity on the surface to the centrifugal force at the equator, so is 191 to  $\frac{4}{3}$ , or so is 239 to unity. In order to shew that this cannot be, Mr. *Sterling* observes, that when the moon's distance was supposed 60 semi-diameters of the earth (as in art. 5.) it was found that the mean force of gravity was to the centrifugal force at the equator, as 289 to 1. But if the proportion now found be true, the moon's distance at 60 semi-diameters must be augmented in the subtriplicate ratio of 289 to 239; and then it will become 64 semi-diameters. In like manner, if we compute the ratio of the mean force of gravity to the centrifugal force, by presupposing the magnitude of the earth, as Sir *Isaac Newton* and M. *Haygens* did, we must suppose a degree to be upwards of 80 English miles to bring it out 23. 91. Now whereas it is certain that the distance of the moon is about 60 semi-diameters of the earth, and that a degree is less than 70 English miles; therefore the conclusion, which seems to follow from the *Jamaica* experiment, cannot be allow'd to be true. And the experiments made by *Richer*, in the island of *Cayenne*, wou'd still make a greater difference betwixt the diameters of the earth, than those made in *Jamaica*: And the lengths of the *Paris* and *London* pendulums, compared together, would make it greater than  $\frac{1}{231}$  part of the whole, as it was found in article 5.

8. From all the experiments made with pendulums, it appears, that the theory makes them longer in islands, than they are

are found in fact. The *London* pendulum should be longer when compared to the *Paris* one, than it really is: The *Jamaica* pendulum when compar'd to the *London* one, which vibrates in a greater island, should be longer than is found by experience; and the pendulum in *Cayenne* (a smaller island than *Jamaica*) should still be longer. This defect of gravity in islands is very probably occasioned by the vicinity of a great quantity of water, which being specifically lighter than land, attracts less in proportion to its bulk. And Mr. *Stirling* finds by computation that the odds in the pendulums betwixt theory and practice is not greater than what may be accounted for on that supposition. He also observes, that tho' the matter of the earth were entirely uniform, yet the hypothesis of its being a true spheroid is not near enough the truth to give the number of vibrations, which a pendulum makes in 24 hours. And suppose the true figure were known, the inequalities of mountains and valleys, land and water, heat and cold, would never allow theory and experiments to agree. But after the *French* Gentlemen, who are now about measuring a degree, and making experiments with pendulums in the north and south, shall have finished their design, we may expect new light in this matter.

*Of the Mexican filtre Stone; by Dr. Abraham Vater.* Phil. Transl. N° 438. p. 106. Translated from the Latin.

**T**HIS Stone has got the name *filtre* from its porosity, whereby it lets liquors pass thro' it; and for this reason pots and mortars are made from larger pieces of it, to strain liquors, particularly water to drink: For, it is thought, that the water filtered thro' this stone is thereby freed from all its impurities, and becomes clearer and purer, and more wholesome. This is the reason that these stones are highly valued in *Japan*, and sold at the price of gold, because the *Japanese*, who know nothing of the stone or any other disorder in the kidneys, and who prefer health far before all other blessings, are of opinion, that these petrified fungi have the power of prolonging life, as may be seen in *historia filtri, lapidis in Valentini Mus. Museor. lib. I. cap. 22*: For, this species of fungus, as related in *loc. citat.* grows on the rocks in some places of the Gulph of *Mexico*, about 100 elns under water, and spontaneously hardens and petrifies in the air. Dr. *Vater* will not take upon him to determine the origin of the *filtre* stone, nor manner of its growth, tho' both appears to be very suspicious, and invented purely to prevent its being thought a common stone.

re. For, *Lentilius*, in *ephemer. German. cent. III. Obs*, writes that there are vessels made of two kinds of it ; one a dark grey colour like the *lapis Scissilis* from *Canada*, a wine in *America*, and sold at a dearer rate ; and others of topaceous colour, and of the growth of *Italy*. Nay, according to *Le Clerc* in his physics, as appears by a note added, it is likewise dug up in the bishoprick of *Liege*, and great use in *Holland* : Dr. *Ehrhart* of *Memmingen*, presented Dr. *Vater* with a choice collection of fossiles, among which was a *topbos* peculiarly porous, found about *Memmingen*, which, as he assured him, would strongly imbibe water, whatever part of it was immers'd therein : For, no sooner is the surface of the water touch'd by it, but by the pressure of atmosphere, the water ascends, and is carried quite thro' porous substance, as we find by experience, in sugar, salt, in paper and sponge. And, this immediately suggested a hint, whether it might not be made use of instead of the *Mexican* filtre to strain water. In order to try this, he made a hollow in a little bit of it, and upon pouring water therein, he saw it strain very fast thro' its pores. He therefore proposed to try the same thing with other *tophi* and stones ; and with this design he took the topaceous tubes of *ocolla*, and stopping one extremity, he poured water thereon ; it transuded very fast thro' its porous substance. He more recollect'd that he had a sponge for several years, which when he lived at the *Caroline* bath, he had put in a pipe that drew the hot waters, and by this means the sponge being impregnated with the ochre, which the hot waters carry along with them and deposite in their passage, degenerated into a *tophus* : he made a pit in the sponge, and fill'd it with water, it ran very fast through it. Upon this he resolv'd to make a *tophus* of the hot bath, of which he had a pretty large piece ; and for this purpose he gave it a stone-cutter to break into a mortar, to see whether the water would pass thro' dense and solid stone : And it answer'd his expectation : upon pouring water therein it strain'd through in the manner as through the *Mexican* filtre and other *tophi* ; but upon account of the density of the stone, slower than through more porous stones. The Dr. was pleased that he had by this experiment discover'd something that might contribute to illustrate the generation of the *Mexican* filtre under water : For, the *tophus* of the hot baths is generated from the water containing its ochre, in flowing thro' the pipes, and is insensibly con-

concreted; he thought in like manner that the sea beating upon the rocks deposits saline earthy particles, from whose successive concretion this stone is generated, and rather grows on the rocks, than like rock-mushrooms, springs from them; but the origin of this stone, as has been shewn above, is very doubtful, and it does not manifestly appear, whether it be taken from the bottom of the sea, or rather dug out of the earth. The Dr. will not take upon him to determine any thing about it: But considering the remarkable density of the hot *tophus*, thro' which notwithstanding water filtrates, he had mind to try the same experiment with the common stone in use of in building. The success answer'd expectation: For mortar made of such stone served instead of the Mexican stone, the water straining equally clear thro' both. The water strain'd in this manner acquir'd at first an earthly taste, which upon repeated filtration it lost; as *Lentilius* in *loc. supra* observ'd of the stone filtré: There is likewise no doubt, that other stones have the same effect; because the hard and most solid flint stones, with which streets are paved, imbibe water, as we observe in rainy weather: Yet it is evident to any one, that the more solid and dense the stones are, the narrower their pores, the water pour'd on them will more difficultly and slowly pervade them:

But now we come to the virtue ascribed to this stone filtre, as that water strained thro' it is freed from all its impurities. For, thus we read in the above cited history in *Valentini sÆo*, that water filtered thro' it, tho' very clear when poured therein, yet always deposites some little imperceptible dræin, and becomes sensibly lighter, purer, and more wholesome; and may keeps a much longer time without turning musty. Is this the case, and could water be freed by this means from all heterogeneous particles, such filtres would deservedly be very valuable: For, what conduces more to health than water in meat and drink. And yet vast tracts of the earth are deprived of this blessing, where they have none, what is brackish, nitrous, vitriolic and aluminous, and pregnant with other mineral particles, which may occasion several diseases. It seems entirely probable that water strain'd thro' such stone-filtres, deposites these impurities, because we see, and experience confirms it, that springs rising up in sandy, gravelly places, and straining thro' the bottom, are much more limpid and pure than other springs. But the purity of these waters is not owing to their filter.

the sand and gravel and depositing their impurities therein, but rather to their carrying none along with them : it is verified by chemical experiments, that not only earthy, sulphureous, and mineral particles, dissolv'd in the waters, and closely united with them, can by no means be separated from them by filtration : For, we observe that the most solid minerals, as mercury, antimony, lead and other minerals dissolved, pass thro' the pores of a paper filtre, and afterwards separated by precipitation from the waters, and by repeated filtration remain in the filtre : But, it may be objected that a coarse and dense stone filtre is of greater efficacy in this case than a paper one : Yet the contrary appears from the waters that exsudate and distil from mines and subterraneous cavities, which immediately petrify, whence arises the stalactites. From this alone it appears, of what use the most solid stones, and consequently, stone filters, are, to depurate water, and separate the saline earthy and mineral impurities, dissolv'd therein. Yet the Dr. does not deny, but that muddy and slimy waters may by straining thro' such stones become clear and pellucid ; because these impurities do not dissolve in the water or intimately incorporate therewith, but only float therein. But besides these, no other waters can by any means become purer, as he learned from repeated experiments, both with the filtre from Holland, and with those made from the *tophus* of the Caroline hot baths and common stone, on several kinds of river and spring water ; and with an hygrometer examining their weight both before and after filtration, he found little or no difference. How happy, therefore, are the countries, to whom a kind providence has given limpid and wholesome springs of water, that require no such filters. But such as are deprived of this blessing, can do no better than use rain-water, as being by distillation freed of all its impurities ; and consequently the purest and most defecated.

*A Halo observed at Rome Aug. 11. 1732; by S. De Revillas.*  
Phil. Trans. N° 438. p. 118. *Translated from the Latin.*

FROM 3 o'clock in the forenoon till 2 in the afternoon a simple halo, every way defined, and exactly circular, was observ'd to surround the sun in its pole; its breadth seem'd to equal the apparent diameter of the sun; the innermost colour was red, the rest pretty dilute, and analogous to those

those observed in the rainbow, but terminating in a whitish brightness, and somewhat changed about noon. Tho' the sky was serene, it was tinged with a thin darkness, a north wind blowing very gently. Afterwards the darkness condensed into whitish little clouds, while the halo vanish'd, whose diameter measur'd from the innermost edge of the zone, 4 degrees.

The height of the barometer the same day was, as follows;

At 4 o'clock in the forenoon	—	27. 11 Paris inches
At noon	—	27. 10 $\frac{1}{2}$
At 2 in the afternoon	—	27. 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ .

*An Account of an ancient Date found at Widgel-hall in Hertfordshire; by Mr. John Cope. Phil. Trans. N° 439. p. 119.*

FIG. I. Plate VI. represents an ancient chimney-piece (Mr. Cope was informed) discover'd on pulling down part of *Widgel-hall* in *Hertfordshire*: There is cut upon it a date partly express'd in *Roman* numerals, and partly in *Indian* figures; which is the earliest instance he has met with of the *Indian* figures being used in *England*, viz. M. 16, or 1016 that at *Colchester* being An. 1090. vide *Phil. Trans.* N° 268. The carving is very fair, the letter M. and the figures project out above  $\frac{1}{4}$  of an inch. The whole chimney piece is an *English* oak-plank; and was very firm, tho' 718 years old and never painted over; it is 4 foot 3 inches and  $\frac{1}{2}$  long. The part under the figures 16 was broken off in taking it down in Aug. 1733, when the house was on fire.

*Remarks on the aforesaid ancient Date, found on an Oak-Plank at Widgel-hall near Buntingford in Hertfordshire now preserv'd in the Museum of the Royal Society; by Mr. John Ward. Phil. Trans. N° 439. p. 120.*

APRIL 4, 1734, a curious draught of an ancient date carv'd in an oaken-plank at *Widgel-hall*, the seat of Mr. *Gulston*, was laid before the *Royal Society*, as the most early instance of our common figures, usually call'd *Arabian*, which had ever been observ'd in *England*. It was read M. 16 and thought to express the year 1016: the M. being taken for a *Roman* numeral, and the 16 for *Arabian* figures.

Dr. *Wallis* had in 1683 communicated to the *Royal Society* the draught of a mantle tree, somewhat like this, which he

at the parsonage-house at *Helmdon* in *Northamptonshire*. The date, which was likewise carv'd in mix'd characters express'd the year  $\text{M} 133$ , as the Dr. read it: This being the best monument of that sort, which had then been discover'd among us, was first publish'd in *Phil. Trans.* N° 154, and afterwards in the Dr's *Algebra*, cap. 4. p. 14.

An. 1700, another draught of a date at *Colchester*, which had been sent to Dr. *Wallis* by Mr. *Luffkin* (who copied it from the under cell of a wooden window, and read the figures 1090, being all *Arabian*) was likewise publish'd in the *Phil. Trans.* N° 266, as more ancient than the former.

None earlier than these 2 last had hitherto appear'd, till at from *Widgel-hall*: Upon the sight of which Mr. *Ward* thought the reading given to it look'd very plausible. The sixt characters were no just objection, which Dr. *Wallis* had accounted for in the *Helmdon* date *Phil. Trans.* N° 266, and Mr. *Ward* himself observed in some manuscripts: But still the difficulty seemed to remain, which was the want of some character in the place of hundreds: And therefore, soon after going into *Hertfordshire*, he took that opportunity to wait upon Mr. *Gulston*, in order to see the original, which was some time after presented to the Royal Society, together with a letter giving an account of the antiquity of the building in which it stood. And as that letter may afford some light to the enquiry about the date cut in the plank, it is as follows.

Part of a letter from *Francis Gulston Esq*; to Mr. *John Ward*.

Sir,

' I can give you no further account of the antiquity of the building, than that in general it was esteemed ancient. Before the house was burnt, on the timbers there were several old coats of arms; some we look'd on as belonging to the family of the *Scalers*, who were possessors of *Widdihale* with other estates soon after the conquest.

" *Widdihale* in *Hertfordshire* in the time of the Conqueror was parcel of the estate of *Hardwin de Scalers*, as appears by *Domesdeibook*, fol. 141. It continued in that family for several generations, till it came to *Anthony Widvile*, by the marriage of the daughter and heir of *Scalers*. But when he would not comply with *Richard III.* to destroy the young Princes, all his lands were seised, and the Manor continued in the Crown, till *Henry the VIII.*

“ granted it to *George Canon* and *John Gill*: *George Gill*,  
 “ the son of *John*, marrying the daughter of *George Cam*,  
 “ obtain’d the whole. In this family it continu’d till the be  
 “ ginning of the reign of *James I.* when it was sold to *John*  
 “ *Goulston Esq.*; whose descendants now hold it. *vide S*  
*Henry Chauncy’s hist. and antiquit. of Hertfordshire*  
 “ p. III.”

“ The house of *Widdibale*, probably, might have been  
 “ greater antiquity, and I believe really was: For, at the  
 “ time of the conquest it was in the possession of a consider-  
 “ able follower of *Harold*.

“ The piece of timber I send you was the top of a door-  
 “ way, in a timber-built house, and plaster’d over with mos-  
 “ tar. From the date on the plaster’d wall, the door had no  
 “ been us’d at least 344 years: For, on the outside wa-  
 “ plainly to be seen the date 1390. Part of the room the  
 “ was found in was burnt too much to repair again: And  
 “ taking down the burnt timbers, being present myself, I ac-  
 “ cidentally saw it, and observing the date, thought it a cur-  
 “ iosity, that might give to the curious some speculation.

I am, &c.

“ Woodbridge in Suffolk  
 “ July the 14, 1734.”

Francis Gull

Upon considering the characters on this plank, and those  
 the other 2 dates mention’d above, together with the account  
 given by learned men of the time, when the *Arabian* figures  
 were first introduced into these parts of the world, and the  
 various forms they have since receiv’d, as represented in  
 Fig. 2. Mr. *Ward* was at last satisfied, that none of these  
 dates prove they were ever us’d among us, in less than 1000  
 years after the reading given to the latest of them. And the  
 reasons which led him into this opinion, he now begs leave  
 to offer, after having first briefly enquir’d into their origin  
 and antiquity.

Most writers, who have treated of the rise of these figures,  
 have thought that they came first from the *Persians* or *Indians*,  
 to the *Arabians*; and from them to the *Moors*; and so to the  
*Spaniards*, from whom the other *Europeans* receiv’d them.  
 This was the opinion of *John Gerard Vossius*, *de Natura ani-*  
*lib. 3. cap. 8. § 6.* *Mr. John Greaves de signis Arabum & Pe-*  
*sarum astronom. p. 2.* where the form of them may be seen.

Bilb

shop Beveridge, *Arithmet. Chronolog. lib: I. cap. 5.* Dr. Wallis, *de Algebra cap. 3.* p. 10. and many others. And the Arabians themselves own they had them from the Indians; both Dr. Wallis *ibid.* p. 9. and Mr. Greaves, *de siglis Aram,* &c. have shewn from their writers.

But Isaac Vossius thought the ancient Greeks and Romans were acquainted with these figures; and that the Arabians took them from the Greeks, and the Indians from the Arabians, *Observat. ad Pomp. Mel.* p. 64. For the proof of this refers to Tyro and Seneca's notes, *Grut. Inscript. Vol. II. fin.* and Boethius's treatise *de geometria, lib. I. sub fin.* But as to the notes of Tyro and Seneca, they seem to have no affinity with these figures, either in their number or nature: for, they are not limited to 9, but many times that number, and all different in form. Nor are they simple signs of numbers, but complex characters of several letters of those numerical words, which they stand for in the Roman language, like our short-hands; and therefore vary in their shape, as they are designed to express cardinals, ordinals, or adverbs of number. This will appear by the table of characters (Fig. 2.) in which are represented the first ten of each. But as to what Vossius says concerning Boethius, Mr. Ward observ'd in a curious manuscript of that writer, now in Dr. Head's library, 9 characters, which he tells us were invented and used by some of the Pythagoreans in their calculations; while others of them made use of the letters of the alphabet for the same purpose. Boethius calls them *apices* or *characters, ubi supra:* These are also inserted in Fig. 2. to shew the great affinity between them and the Arabian figures, as the latter were written 2 or 3 centuries ago.

The opinion of Daniel Huetius differs from either of the former: For in *Demonstrat. evangel. prop. iv. c. 13.* p. 172. he imagined, that the Arabian figures were only the letters of the Greek alphabet, corrupted and alter'd by ignorant Librarians.

From this summary account of the rise and antiquity of these figures, it seems probable to Mr. Ward, they might owe their original to the Greeks (those common Masters of all science) and passing from them first to the eastern nations, come round to these western parts, in the manner before described. We have no other author who speaks of this matter, near so ancient as Boethius, whose words are very express, and greatly strengthen'd by the similitude of his characters with

with the Arabian figures. And therefore, we may rather suppose, they took their rise from these than from the small Greek letters, with which *Huetius* compared them; since these latter are neither so like them, nor so old as the time of *Bethius*. And tho' what the *Arabians* say may be true, that they had them from the *Indians*, and not the *Indians* from them, as *Isaac Vossius* conjectur'd: Yet it may be equally true, that the *Indians* had them first from the *Greeks*, and those *Arabian* writers (who are not very ancient) not have known it; nor are there any *Indian* monuments of sufficient antiquity to render this opinion questionable.

But whichsoever of these sentiments may be esteemed the most credible, with respect to the origin of these figures; *Joseph Scaliger lib. 3. ep. 113.* thought they were not received by the *Europeans*, as they came of later ages from the *Arabians*, long before the year 1300.

But *John Gerard Vossius de natur. Art. lib. 3. cap. 8.* was of opinion they began to use them about the middle of the thirteenth century, or the year 1250.

*F. Mabillon*, in his treatise *de re diplomatica*, was necessarily led to attend to the use of these figures, particularly in dates. And he informs us, that they were rarely used before the fourteenth century, except in some few books of geometry and arithmetic. And presently after he says, *lib. 2. cap. 20. § 10.* it was not much to his purpose to treat of them; since he did not design to carry his work lower than the thirteenth century. By which he seems to intimate, that he had met with very few, if any, instances of *Arabian* figures in such instruments at least, before the year 1300.

But no one appears to have examin'd this subject more carefully than *Dr. Wallis*, who has offer'd some arguments to prove, that *Gerbertus*, a monk, who was afterwards advanced to the Papal see, and took the name of *Sylvester II.* had before the year 1000 learn'd the art of arithmetic, as now practis'd, with the use of 9 characters only (whatsoever their form then was) from the *Saracens* in *Spain*, which character he afterwards carried into *France*, *de Algebra c. 4. p. 17.* But the Dr. thinks those characters or figures were known for a long time after only to such artists, and principally used by them in astronomical calculations; the *Roman* numerals being still retained in common use to express smaller numbers, *ibid. p. 11, 15, 16.* Nor has he given us the figures us'd by any of those writers, before *Johannes de Bosco sacro*, who died in

the year 1256; and *Maximus Planudes*, a Greek, who flourished after him; which Mr. Ward has copied from him, and inserted in Fig. 2.

Mr. David Casley, in his *Catalogue of the Manuscripts of the King's Library, &c.* has publish'd a specimen of manuscripts from the Cottonian library, call'd *Calendarium Rogerii Bacon*, Pl. XV. and dated 1292. The figures in this book are Arabian; and as Mr. Casley informed him, the oldest at he remembers to have met with in either of those libraries: For which reason Mr. Ward has given them a place in Fig. 2.

It appear'd to Mr. Ward exceeding difficult, how to reconcile the opinions and observations of these several writers, concerning the first use of the Arabian figures in these western countries, with the time assign'd even to the latest of the dates above-mentioned: And it could not but seem very strange, that no date of any writing should have been produc'd in those figures, or any other use of them discovered except perhaps in some mathematical calculations, or books (arithmetic) long before the fourteenth century: And yet at a date should be found, so carv'd in a piece of wood, before the middle of the twelfth century, for so common a purpose as the mantle-tree of a chimney.

But upon a closer examination of the characters he found reason to think, this was not really the case; and that instead of 1133, they ought to be read 1233, what has been taken for 1, being designed for a 2. This reading seems to be confirmed by the shape of the two 33 that follow it; from which the bottom curve towards the right hand (as it was often made formerly) was taken off, the upper part would make a 2. Which agreement between those figures is not only equal at present, but often found in manuscripts of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. Tho' sometimes indeed it is otherwise; and the 2 has an angle at the top, when the 3 is round, which would not so well have suited this square hand. The reason which occasioned the carrying this date so high up, he presumes, have been the similitude between the small i over the preceeding abbreviated word *Domini* and the 2. But tho' they appear to have some likeness, yet there is a manifest difference between them: For, the 2 is much larger at the top, where it has an angle, and a curve turnward, that plainly distinguish it from the former. Could be taken for a 1, he should much rather suppose it was designed

designed for a letter than a figure; and the 2 following characters for a double *ll*; and so the whole to be only an abbreviation of the word *millesimo*. But as he thinks it must be 2, for the reasons already assigned, and as he does not remember to have ever met with such a double *ll*, he cannot but esteem the other the true reading. And yet still he believes this date may claim the preference of being the oldest of the sort, that has hitherto been discover'd.

The antiquity, ascribed to the *Colchester* date, namely 1090, has, it seems, been occasioned by a mistake in the copy: For the 0 in the place of hundreds should have been made a 4, by drawing down an oblique stroke on each side from the bottom, which makes it 1490, before which time the 4 had long receiv'd that shape, as may be seen in Fig. 2. This information Mr. *Ward* had from Mr. *West*, a person well skilled in the British antiquities, and who himself perceiv'd the mistake viewing the original.

As to the date from *Widgel-hall*, which gave occasion to the enquiry, it seems to Mr. *Ward* plainly intended to express the year 1000, and no more, by the Roman character (Fig. 3.) the escutcheon on the right side. For, the characters in the other escutcheon cannot, he thinks, stand for figures, but may be the initial letters of two names J. G. as W. R. in the *Heddon* date; and were very probably designed in both to denote the persons who erected those buildings. The omission of character in the place of hundreds is still an argument with him, that these two last were not made for figures. But what he imagines puts the matter past all doubt, is the want of evidence that the figure 6 had receiv'd that form till some time after: And when it was introduced, the upper part was not first made so erect, as it is here, but carried in a small arch over the top of the circle, as may be seen in Fig. 2. On the other hand what looks here like the modern 6 was at that time the usual form of the capital G. This he found fully confirmed by a large collection of original grants, made by our ancient kings and others, and preserv'd in the *Cottonian library* *Augustus II.* Upon consulting these for half a century at least both before and after the year 1016, Mr. *Ward* found the G written in a great number of them, of which the following are some few instances. N. 37. *Anno DCCCLX.* N. 35. *DCCCCXCIII.* N. 53. *Anno XLV.* N. 49. *MLXXXI.*

For these reasons, therefore, he makes no question, but that character was designed for a G and not a 6. And it is plain in other circumstances in Mr. Gulston's letter, that the building might very probably be as ancient as the year 1000; which renders this relique of it, considering how firm and sound it still is, a remarkable curiosity.

The use, Mr. Ward thinks may be made of these observations, is this: That so far as hitherto appears, any coin, inscription or manuscript, with a suppos'd date before the thirteenth century, expressed in Arabian figures, may be justly suspected either not to be genuine, or not truly read; unless the antiquity of it be certain from other clear and undoubted circumstances, and the date bear no other reading; and if it be a copy, that it has been taken with exactness.

*Some Considerations on the Antiquity and Use of the Indian Characters or Figures; by Mr. John Cope. Phil. Trans. N° 439. p. 131.*

THE ingenious invention of figures by the sagacious Indians is of such vast importance in numbering, that it can never be sufficiently admired, tho' now a days the use of them is become so familiar among us, that very few consider what a loss the want of them would be to people of every degree and station in life: For, only to consider, that such a number as not long before the conquest would take up a good arithmetician whole days to count by the literal characters, is now by the help of figures commonly express'd by a child in a few minutes. This consideration of the vast use of figures put the learned Dr. Wallis, and others after him, upon enquiring at what time they were first happily introduced into this island.

Dr. Wallis informs us, that we had the figures from Spain hither they were brought by the Moors; the Moors had them from the Arabians; and the Arabians from the Indians. And it was the Dr's opinion, that they were first brought into England about the year 1130: In regard the first instance of their use, which he had met with, was a date upon a chimney piece, which date was 1133 (as represented in Fig. 4.) the character, which the Romans made use of to express 1000, being mix'd with figures, as he observes, was often done at their first coming in; since that, in Phil. Trans. N° 266 is mention'd a date, 1090, all in figures. Mr. Cope himself had produced a date upon a chimney-piece at Wiget-hall in Hertfordshire,

which was (as shewn Fig. 5.) 1016, the character for the 1000 being here again mixed with figures. And now he produces still earlier instance of the use of figures in *England*, as Fig. 6. which is a draught of an inscription over a gate-way at *Worcester*, built, as it is believed, in the reign of king *Edgar* and is 975, which is 158 years before Dr. *Wallis's* date 41 years before that Mr. *Cope* had produced formerly, and is now 760 years standing. The shape of the figures in his date were alter'd from what they are here shewn to be, about 2 years before, when the gate was new chipped and beautified; and the same time the modern figures 975 were then painted in their room, as they are now to be seen; the ground is gold, and the figures black. The account of this date Mr. *Cope* had from Mr. *Joseph Dougharty* of *Worcester*, who lived in the house over the gate-way on which this inscription is: He likewise informed him, that his house goes by the name of *the old house in five counties*: And it is the current opinion thereabouts, and reported by the ancient people in that place, that the house was built by king *Edgar*, wherein they say ---- sometimes kept his court. Mr. *Cope* owns himself not so well acquainted with the history of those times, as to say whether king *Edgar* either built, or kept his court there; but all historians agree that *Worcester* was then a very considerable Bishopric; and that *Dunstan* and *Oswald*, who were successively Bishops there in *Edgar's* time, were both his great favourites especially *Dunstan*: For, it appears that the first thing *Edgar* did after he came to the crown was to recall *Dunstan* from *Flanders*, where he had been 3 years in exile; and immediately thereupon was made prime Minister, favourite and confessor, first Bishop of *Worcester*, and afterwards Archbishop of *Canterbury*; upon which last promotion his great friend *Oswald* succeeded him in the see of *Worcester*: And it is very likely that either *Dunstan* or *Oswald*, as having so much power, interest, and riches, might erect a building there, of which this gate-way might have been a part: For, as *Edgar* died in the same year 975; if we suppose the date to be fixed upon the building the year it was finish'd, as is now commonly done, *Edgar* could not live or keep his court there, unless it was in some part of that year, in which we suppose it to be finish'd.

Mr. *Cope* next mentions some observations upon the different shape the figures have been alter'd to, since their coming into these western parts: For, our ancestors wrote them different

from

from the *Indians*; and we again make some of them different from what our ancestors did, as will appear by the table represented in Fig. 7.

In this table the left hand column contains the *Indian* characters; the middle those used by our forefathers, as appears by old western manuscripts; the third, the characters we now use. We may now observe, that the figure 1 is the same as the *Indian*; the figures 2 and 3 the same with the *Indian*, only placed in a different position, for the sake of writing them more readily; for, only the dash from the *Indian* 3 is taken away; they are only, as we may say, both set upright: So the *Indian* character for four is much the same with ours; only close the head, and set it upright, thus 4. Again, our ancestors transferr'd the *Indian* character for 5 from the place of 6 to that of 8, and with very little alteration is our 8 made from it. As the figure 5 was mov'd into the place of 8; so the eight was mov'd into the place of seven: And as they put the five for an eight, they put the six into the place of five, which character for six was at length alter'd as in the figure, and last of all to 5. The 2 characters 9 and 0 are without any alteration, only that our ancestors struck a line cross the cypher, which we now leave out; and by that means it is restor'd to its ancient form. And now we have no figure left but the *Indian* character for 7 to derive the modern 6 from, to which it seems to have no manner of relation: Mr. Cope only observes, that it seems not unlikely to be compounded of the *Indian* 0 and the 1, as thus, 6: For, of the 2 ancient characters for the 0 is *Indian*, and the other *Arabian*; this last being no other than the *Arabian* letter (represented in Fig. 8.) inverted, which in the *Arabian* alphabet denotes the same number; and as it is suppos'd, us'd by the *Arabians* only.

The *Roman* characters have likewise undergone alterations: for, it is found that 1000 was represented by the ancients by the character (Fig. 9.) as also by the character (Fig. 10.) whence is deriv'd the modern M for that number: Also 5000 was represented by the character (Fig. 11.) and 50000 by the character (Fig. 12.) and hence the modern characters CCI and CCCI for the same number. We also find in ancient inscriptions the characters (Fig. 13.) stand for 20, and that in Fig. 14 for 30; the latter X being twice express'd in the one, and three times in the other, which the moderns write single, as XX and XXX, though the timber merchants use the ancient characters (as represented in Fig. 13 and 14.) to this day.

*Remarks on the aforesaid ancient Date, over a Gate-way near  
the Cathedral at Worcester; by Mr. John Ward. Phil.  
Trans. N<sup>o</sup> 439. p. 136.*

HAVING in a former *Transaction* communicated to the Royal Society some remarks on an ancient date, carv'd in wood, that was found at *Widgel-hall* near *Buntingford* in *Hertfordshire*, with the characters (represented Fig. 3. Plate VI. 16, which had been read 1016, supposed to be mixed numbers) the character (Fig. 3.) being *Roman*, and the 2 others *Arabian* or *Indian*, as they are indifferently call'd: This led Mr. *Ward* to consider two other dates of the like kind, formerly published in the *Phil. Trans.* one found at *Helmdon* in *Northamptonshire* in mixed characters (Fig. 3.) expressing, as was thought 1133; and the other at *Colchester*, said to denote the year 1090, entirely in *Arabian* figures. But upon searching into the origin of those figures, and the time when they were first brought into these parts of the world, he could meet with no examples of them in any manuscripts, before some copies of *Johannes Sacro Bosco* (mention'd by Dr. *Wallis*) who died *An. 1200* which was 123 years after the latest of the 3 dates above-mention'd. As it could not, therefore, but seem very surprising that workmen should have made use of those figures for common purposes, so long before they appear in the writings of the learned: So upon a closer examination and farther enquiry he found there was no reason from any of these dates to suppose it was really true in fact: For, the *Helmdon* date instead of 1133 (Fig. 3.) should, as he then shew'd, be read 1233; the *Colchester* date 1490, instead of 1090: And that at *Widgel-hall* there were no *Arabian* figures in it, the characters 1 and 6 not being numbers but the initial letters of two proper names I G, in the usual form of those letters in that age.

But there was read before the society an account of a date at *Worcester* (Fig. 6.) more ancient than any of the three former; in which the unit is a *Roman* numeral, and the other two taken for *Indian* figures. He observ'd above, that such mixtures were sometimes found in ancient numbers; but in what manner they were so used, he did not then explain, but for brevity contented himself with referring to the *Algebra* of Dr. *Willis*, a book so very well known. The Dr. thought it necessary to take notice of this, in order to account for his way of reading the *Helmdon* date, in which the character (Fig. 3.) only is a *Roman* numeral: And Mr. *Ward* him-

d met with a few instances of it in Dr. Mead's manuscript of *Eusebius, De Arith. lib. 2.* as CCC<sub>2</sub>9, and DCC<sub>6</sub>8, where the hundreds are numeral letters, and both the decimals and its Arabian figures, but it is observable, this is not done promiscuously, but the largest numbers are always letters, and the lesser ones, figures, as in the *Helmdon* date. And Mabillon in his *re diplom. tab. xv.* has observ'd, that in a curious manuscript copy of *Thomas a Kempis*, written in the 15th century, none of the pages are so number'd : Which method, so far as appears, was always attended to, and never in any one instance inverted. So that this *Worcester* date, which has a Roman numeral in the place of units, and the two preceding characters opposed to be *Indian* figures, is not only without example, but directly contrary to all other instances of such mixed numbers ; which consideration alone might be a sufficient ground to think, there must be some mistake in the reading.

But the middle figure, taken for a seven, is as remarkable ; which, turning towards the left hand, forms two obtuse angles ; the above, the other below. This shape of the seven, he believes, was never seen before, and seems by no means to suit at age. In the specimen of the figures, taken from *Johannes de Sacro Bosco* by Dr. Wallis, as may be seen in Fig. 15. the figure seven is made in the form represented in (fig. 15.) the two legs of an isosceles triangle. And in Roger Bacon's Calendar, dated 1292, there is only this variation ; that the leg to the left hand is somewhat shortened, as will likewise appear in the Table fig. 2. And this form continued till printing was introduced among us ; as is evident from Paxton's *Polychronicon*, and other books printed about that time : Nor does Mr. Ward find it till more latterly in any other shape, except that in Bishop Beveridge's table of *Indian* figures, *Arith. chron. lib. 1. c. 4.* the two legs of our ancient seven are drawn parallel, and arch'd at top (as in fig. 15.) instead of meeting in an angle : And Planudes, a Greek writer, has kept the true *Arabian* form (V) like the *Roman* five, which the *Europeans* inverted, as in fig. 2. The last alteration this figure receiv'd among us, was by raising the shorter leg horizontally : But no instance of it parallel to this in the *Worcester* date, nor any thing like it, has before appear'd : As there seems therefore no reason to suppose it a seven, so Mr. Ward thinks it was probably design'd for the *Roman* numeral, seven, which was made in this form, like an X ; to which character in the old square hand, this supposed seven (fig. 17.) would

very

very well agree, by supplying only the two extreme parts to the right hand, as in fig. 18. which may be easily supposed to have been decay'd by length of time.

As there is no reason to take the middle character for a *ven*, so neither is there any to suppose the first intended for *nine*, being thus placed before two *Roman* numerals, as Mr. Ward takes them both to be: It has indeed some similitude to that figure; but nothing more than what anciently was and still is, common to the letter (fig. 19.) in that hand, which resembles a double character (fig. 20.) with an oblique stroke turned inwards from the bottom of that to the right hand so that if the other to the left be taken away, what remains will appear in the form (fig. 21.) like what is here call'd *nine*: And every one, who has any acquaintance with ancient inscriptions knows that letters frequently perish in this manner, one part before another.

Upon these suppositions the true reading would be *MXV*. But since the old date is now destroy'd, and modern figures put in its place, this must remain uncertain. And Mr. Ward cannot but think the former characters must have been very dark and obscure, for the following reasons.

There is a tower, as he is inform'd, over this gate, of which Dr. William Thomas, who lives very near it, has given some account, in a treatise, entitled, *A Survey of the Cathedral Church of Worcester*, p. 7. ‘it is commonly call'd King John's tower, and said by some to be built by him: But it was much more ancient; having in the front of it the statues of King Edgar, and his two Queens *Ethelfleda* and *Ethelfrida*; and the street, it leads into, in several writings call'd *Edgar-street*.’ See likewise Hearne's preface to *Heng's Chartularium*, in the frontispiece of which treatise is a draught of those 3 figures. Could there be any room for its being ever supposed to have been built by King *John*, whilst this date was plain and clear? Or would the author of the survey have contented himself with only saying, *it was much more ancient*; when he could so easily have given us the year had he been satisfied with the reading. King *Edgar* had been a great benefactor to the Cathedral Church at *Worcester*; and is said to have given it 300 hides of land, vide Dr. Thomas's account of the Bishops of *Worcester*. *Edgar* died in 975, but his Queen *Ethelfrida* survived him several years. And as is not unusual, in order to perpetuate the memory of public benefactors, to erect statues and other monuments of them, after

are dead, it might be so in the present case, and the street give its name (for some time at least) from this building. tho' the precise year of this date cannot now be determined with certainty : It is sufficient to have shewn, that neither order of the characters, their shape, nor the oldest examples Arabian or Indian figures, any where found, do in the least maintenance the reading given it : But on the contrary, all of them afford the highest probability, that it cannot be genuine.

Mr. Ward only adds, that Mr. Gale and Mr. West told him, they thought the two first characters taken for a nine and a ten, might probably have been nothing but the character represented in Fig. 19. which will bring the date to 1005, ten years nearer the time of Edgar. Mr. Ward's only difficulty in that reading is, that the character would then have two oblique strokes (Fig. 22.) prolonged from the bottom, one in the middle, besides the other usual one towards the right hand, which Mr. Ward does not remember ever to have met with : as this inaccuracy might arise from the obscurity of the character ; he leaves it to the curious to judge either way as he pleases, both sentiments equally supposing the original characters of this date must have been Roman numerals.

This enquiry is the more necessary, as it is apprehended to be of some consequence; especially with relation to manuscripts : A copy, for instance, of some ancient author, written in 975, and dated in Arabian figures, may, by changing only the 9 into a cypher, be carried back 300 years ; or by making the 9 a 1, and taking out the 1, may be raised still a century higher, to 975, the supposed year of the Worcester date : And the converviant in manuscripts are sensible that the age of them cannot always be determined barely by the hand : Since, therefore, Arabian figures are in most cases much more easily falsified than Roman numerals, Mr. Ward presumes a too great caution not to be used, in admitting any instances of them more recent than have hitherto been discovered, but upon very clear and sufficient evidence.

Experiments on Electricity ; by Mr. Gray. Phil. Trans.

N<sup>o</sup> 459. p. 166.

E.B. 18. Mr. Gray tried what effect would be produced on several sorts of wood, with respect to the luminous part of electricity ; the wood (which was fir, ash, and holly) was made rods of the same form with the iron ones mentioned in former

former experiments ; these being successively disposed upon electric bodies, in the same manner as the iron rods had been, and the tube applied to one end, there appeared a light on it, but not with so great a force, nor did it extend to so great a length ; neither was its form conical, but rather cylindrical ; but its extremity seem'd to consist of a short fringe of light ; when the light, communicated to the rod by the application of the tube, ceased, upon a motion of the hand towards the point of the rod, the light came out again, as was mentioned of the iron rods ; but when the hand or finger was held near the point of these wooden rods, there was no pricking or pushing of the finger felt, as when the iron rods were made use of. Mr. Gray had some of these rods made much bigger at one end, than the other, and now applying his finger to the larger end, there not only appeared a light, but the finger was pushed, more especially when the holly rod was made use of ; and the smart was a little pricked, but the smart was not near so great, when the iron rods were used ; the great end of the rod was pointed with a much larger angle than the lesser one ; there was very little, if any difference, in the form or size of the light that proceeded from either end.

Having procured two pair of lines of worsted yarn, one mazarin blue, the other a scarlet colour, on the 3d of April suspended the boy, first on the blue lines, and he found the effects the same, as when he was suspended on lines of blue silk : He then suspended him upon the scarlet lines ; now tho' the tube was as well excited, and the experiment often repeated, yet there was no effect produced on him, either of attraction of a pendulous thread, nor of pricking or burning, by applying one's hand near him ; he then laid one of the iron rods, first upon the blue lines and all the same effects were exhibited, as when the same rod had been laid on silk lines of that colour ; but upon laying the same rod upon the scarlet lines, no manner of attraction, &c. was perceived.

Mr. Gray now found, that when the stand with the little inverted cups (mentioned in the experiments on the communicative electricity of water) is set upon any electric body, the same phenomena are produced, not only by holding the tube near the water, but when that is removed, and the tip of the stand placed over the water, there is a little hill or protuberance of water of a conical form, from the vertex of which proceeds a light, and a small snapping.

May 6, the following experiment was made: The boy being suspended on the silk lines, and the tube applied near his finger, as usual: upon his holding the end of his finger near a gentleman's hand, that stood on a cake made of shell-lac and black rosin; and at the same time another gentleman standing at the other side of the boy with the pendulous thread; the boy was then bid to hold his finger near the first gentleman's hand; upon which it was pricked, and the snapping noise heard; and at the same time the thread which by its attraction was going towards the boy, fell back, the boy having lost great part of his attraction; upon a second moving his finger to the gentleman's hand, the attraction ceased; then the thread being held near that gentleman, he was found to attract very strongly: But having afterwards repeated this experiment, Mr. Gray found that tho' the attraction of the boy was much diminished, yet he does not quite lose it, till 2, 3, and sometimes 4 applications of his finger to the hand of him, that stands on the electric body, but without touching him. At another time he caused three persons to stand, one on a cake of shell-lac, &c. the other upon one of sulphur, the third on a cake of bees-wax and rosin; the persons all holding hands, and the boy applying his finger near the first man's hand, they all three became electrical, as appeared by the attraction of the thread, when held near any of them.

June 10, in the morning Mr. Gray repeated the experiments with the wooden rods, the most material of which were made with the holly rod; and this being laid on the glass cylinder, and a fir board, about a foot square and  $\frac{3}{4}$  of an inch thick, placed erect upon a stand, which was set on another glass cylinder; so that the centre of the board was placed near the point of the rod, but not to touch it by near half an inch; then the tube being held near the great end of the rod, there issued out a light from the little end of the rod, which was that next the board; and as the boy told Mr. Gray, it came along with a hissing noise, and struck against the board: When he touch'd the board, there was a light; and at the same time, another on the end of the rod, but he heard no snapping nor pricking of his finger, as when the brass plate and iron rod were made use of.

When the boy was suspended upon the scarlet lines, he attracted the white thread at a very small distance, but the attraction ceased in about 6 or 7 seconds of time: Then the boy being taken off, an iron rod was laid on the lines;

but there was no attraction of the thread by the body of the rod ; but when the thread was held near either of its pointed ends, there was a small repulsion of it, and in the dark a very small light was seen at each end of the rod.

When the boy was suspended upon the blue lines, he attracted the thread to him, when it was held at least a foot distance from him, and continued his attraction to near 75 seconds ; the iron rod continued its attraction not more than 36 seconds.

In the afternoon when the boy was suspended on the blue lines, he continued his attraction 50 minutes ; on the scarlet lines, 25 minutes ; on the orange coloured lines, 21 minutes.

By these experiments we see the efficacy of electricity on bodies suspended upon lines of the same substance, but of different colours, and also that the attraction continues much longer upon silk than yarn ; and consequently silk is the properest body to suspend bodies upon, to which we would communicate electricity.

*An Account of the Births and Burials, with the number of Inhabitants at Stoke-Damerel, in the County of Devon; by Mr. William Barlow. Phil. Trans. N° 439. p. 171.*

**U**PON taking a survey about Michaelmas 1733, of the inhabitants of Stoke-damerel, the number of persons (men, women, and children) residing in the parish, amounted to 3361. By the register Mr. Barlow finds, that in the same year, 28 couple were married, 61 males, and 61 females baptiz'd and 62 people buried.

Baptiz'd.	Buried.	Number of people
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122.	62.	3361.
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Whence it appears, that the number of persons who died, is one more than half the number of children born, and that about 1 in 54 died.

It is to be observ'd, that the general fever, which almost all the inhabitants of the same place were ill of at the same time, was in part within the year mentioned ; also that one of the persons included in the number of those buried, was a foreigner brought from on board a Dutch ship in the river ; and that two more were drowned from on board a man of war ; but the ship's company is not included in the number of the inhabitants.

It appears both from experience and observation, that the parish of Stoke-damerel is as healthful an air as any in England.

*The foramen ovale of the Heart found open in an Adult; by Mr. Amyand. Phil. Trans. N° 439. p. 172.*

Mr. —— dying at the age of 22, of an illness that had perplexed his physicians, was opened, to discover an posthumous, which was apprehended in the belly: As nothing was observ'd there worth notice, but a very great reversion of the viscera, the cause of his death was looked for in the thorax; and there the lungs were strongly attached on each side, to the pleura, and a large collection of water in each cavity, especially on the left, where the posterior lobe was inflam'd and tending to suppuration: The quantity of water in the pericardium was greater than usual, and the heart much larger than could be expected in so great an emphysema, as the patient was reduced to; in it the foramen ovale was found open, so as to give passage to a large finger, even a fungous substance, which grew from the circumference of the foramen, and stopt up the same, was remov'd: The valve was hardly perceptible, being callous and furl'd up: The ductus arteriosus was found close as usual. This patient had enjoy'd great health till latterly, and gave no sign of this opening of the foramen ovale, which is preter-natural in adults.

*Proposition relating to the combination of transparent Lens's with reflecting planes; by Mr. Hadley. Phil. Trans. N° 440. p. 185.*

THE effects of the combining several kinds of telescopes with reflecting planes led Mr. Hadley to the following proposition.

That if two lens's of equal focal length be put together in the form of a telescope, and a plane speculum be placed before one of them, so that the axis of the telescope make a small angle with its surface, and a ray of light (the line of whose direction lies in a plane perpendicular to that surface, and passing thro' the axis of the telescope) fall on it, and be reflected from it, so as to pass thro' the telescope; then the angle of its last direction, after passing the telescope, will make a small angle with that of its first direction, before its incidence on the speculum, very nearly equal to double the angle, made between the axis of the telescope and the surface of the speculum.

*Lemma.* Let the line FG (fig. 23. pl. VI.) be the common axis of the two lens's ID and KE, of equal focal length; to which let the lines AD, DB and BE, be each equal; and let a ray of light, issuing from a point in the axis F, fall on the lens ID at I, and be there refracted into the line IG, cutting the axis in G, and meeting the lens KE in K; where let the ray be again refracted into the line KH, cutting the aforesaid axis in H: The angles IFD and KHE are very nearly equal.

*Demonstration.* We learn from dioptrics, that the lines FI, IG, KH, and FG are all in the same plane; and by the construction, the lines AD, DB and BE are equal; and by propos. 20. of *Huygens's* dioptrics, the lines FA, FD and FG are continually proportional; and consequently FD is to AD, as FD to DG; and by division, FA is to AD as FD - FA (= AD) is to DG - AD (= BG.) Therefore, AD is to BG, as FD to DG. By the same proportion, the lines BG, EG and HG are also continually proportional, and BE (= AD) is to BG, as EH is to EG. Hence it follows, that the lines FD, DG, and EH, are proportionals: But as FD is to DG, so is the tangent of the angle IGD, or KGE to the tangent of the angle IFD; and as EH is to EG, so is the tangent of the angle KGE to the tangent of the angle KHE: The tangent of the angle KGE, therefore, has the same proportion to the tangents of each of the angles IFD and KHE; consequently those angles are equal Q. E. D.

*N. B.* In the demonstration of the above cited proposition of *Huygens*, the thickness of the lens's is neglected, and the distance of the points I and K, from the line FG, supposed very small; so that if either of those are too great, there may arise a sensible difference between the angles IFD and KHE.

Let DF and CG (fig. 24.) represent the two lens's together as before, having their common axis in the line E and BN a plane speculum, to which that line is inclined the angle GHN, and let AB be a ray of light, falling on the speculum at B, as is before expressed, and let it be reflected towards the point C of the lens CG, where it is refracted towards the point D of the lens DF, and then again refracted into the line DE, cutting the axis in E. The angle AOP contained between this last line DE continued backwards, and the first line of the incidence of the ray AB, will be very nearly equal to double the angle

inclination of the axis of the lens's EL to the plane of speculum BN; i.e. double the angle GHN.

*Demonstration.* Produce the lines of incidence and reflection of the ray AB and BC, till they meet the axis of the two lens's in I and L; and thro' the point B draw BK perpendicular to the plane of the speculum, and cutting the axis in K, the angles KBL and KBI are equal: the angle KLB is the difference of the angles IKB and BL; and the angle HIB is the sum of the angles IKB and KBI (equal to KBL): Therefore, the angle IKB is equal to half the sum of the angles HIB and KLB: But by the foregoing *lemma*, the angles KLB and FED are nearly equal: Therefore, the angle IKB is nearly equal to half the sum of the angles HIB and FED: i.e. to half the angle POB; and its complement BHI GHN is nearly equal to half the angle AOP, the complement of POB to a semi-circle. Q. E. D.

If the first incidence of the ray be supposed to be in the direction ED, it will proceed in the same track as before, but with the contrary directions; so that the angle EOB made between the first incident ray, and the last reflected one, will still be equal to the double of GHN, as before.

It is evident that on this principle an instrument might be constructed, whose effects would, in a great measure, resemble those of that in *Phil. Trans.* N° 420: But it would be liable to the errors arising both from the spherical figure of the lens's, and the different refrangibility of the rays of light, when the object is seen at a distance from the axis of the telescope; altho' those errors, by a proper disposition of the parts of the instrument, may be reduced to a very small quantity: However, for this reason, and because the instrument seemed to Mr. Hadley to be attended with greater inconveniences, both in its construction and use, than the other, he has not thought it necessary to give a more particular description of it.

A large bony substance found in the Womb; by Dr. Hody.  
*Phil. Trans.* N° 440. p. 189.

ON examining the pelvis of a woman, 57 years of age, Dr. Hody found a large bony substance in the womb, and so closely united to it, that they seem'd one and the same body: Upon cutting the substance asunder, he observed the ossification went no farther than the thickness of a shilling; the part

part immediately under the ossification was like firm flesh, and this flesh grew softer and softer, as it drew near its centre.

This woman never had but one child, of which she was delivered about 27 years before she died: Her chief complaints for some years, were a short cough, great difficulty in breathing, frequent uneasiness in making water, or in going to stool, and a constant weight, or bearing down, upon the parts of generation.

The immediate cause of her death was, undoubtedly, a *asthma*; for, she had only one lobe of the lungs left, that was perfectly sound; the rest adhered firmly to the *pleura*, were very much contracted, and in some places scirrhouſe.

A (Fig. 1. Plate VII.) represents the bony ſubſtance; B the ſubſtance of the womb cut open, and turned backwards; C small fibres connecting the bony ſubſtance with the *uterus*; D the right *Fallopian tube* lying upon the membrane, which joins the tube to the *uterus*, and to the *ovarium*; E the *ovarium*; F the *Morsus diaboli*; G the left *Fallopian tube* cut off; H the neck of the *uterus* cut open, as elongated by the disease; I the mouth of the *uterus* laid open; K the greatest part of the *vagina* likewiſe laid open.

This *uterus*, with the bony ſubſtance adhering thereto, having been kept 10 years in ſpirits before it was ſent to the engraver, the *vagina*, *Fallopian tube*, the membrane on which the tube lies and the *ovarium*, muſt be ſuppoſed to be greatly contracted: But that part of the *uterus* diſtended by the bony ſubſtance is indeed very little contracted: For, when first taken out of the body it was scarce as thick as a half crown piece.

*Some Experiments concerning the impregnation of the Seeds of Plants; by Mr. Logan.* Phil. Trans. N° 440. p. 192.

**A**S the notion of a male ſeed, or the *farina ſaecundans* in vegetables is now very common, Mr. *Logan* only mentioned ſuch obſeruations, as may have ſome tendency to the ſubject in hand: And firſt, he finds from Mr. *Miller's* diſtionary, that M. *Geoffroy*, from the experiments he made on *Maiz*, was of opinion that ſeeds may grow up to their full ſize, and appear perfect to the eye, without being impregnated by the *farina*; which poſſibly, for ought Mr. *Logan* knows, may in ſome caſes be true, as there is no end of varieties in nature. But in the ſubject M. *Geoffroy* mention'd, Mr. *Logan* has reaſon to believe it is otherwiſe; and that he did not apply all the care reuiſite in the management.

In spring Mr. Logan resolv'd to make some experiments on *Indian corn*. In each corner of his garden (which is 12 foot in breadth, and near 80 foot in length) he planted a hill of that corn; and watching the plants when they grew up to a proper height, and were pushing out both the tassels above, and s below: From one of those hills he cut off the whole tassel; on others he carefully open'd the ends of the ears; and in some of them he cut or pinch'd off all the silken filaments; from others he took about half, from others one fourth, and three fourths, &c. with some variety, noting the heads, and the quantity taken from each: Other heads again he tied at their ends (just before the silk was putting out) with fine skin, but theuzziest or most nappy he could find, to prevent passage of the farina; but that would obstruct neither sun, or rain. He also fasten'd it so very loosely, as not to give least check to vegetation.

The consequence of all which was this; that of the 5 or 6 hills on the first hill, from which he had taken all the tassels, in whence proceeds the farina, there was only one that had much as a single grain in it; and that in about 480 cells had about 20 or 21 grains; the heads or ears, as they stood on the plant, look'd as well to the eye as any other: They were of their proper length; the cores of their full size: But to the touch, for want of the grain, they felt light and yielding. On the core, when divested of the leaves that cover it, the beds of seed were in their ranges, with only a dry skin on each.

In the ears of the other hills, from which he had taken all the silk; and in those he had cover'd with muslin; there was so much as one mature grown grain, nor other than what he mention'd in the first: But in all the other ears, in which he had left part, and taken part of the silk, there was in each the exact proportion of full grains, according to the quantity or number of the filaments he had left on them. And for the few grains he found on one head in the first hill, he immediately accounted thus: That head, or ear, was very large, and stood eminent from the plant; pointing westward with its silk directly towards the next hill of *Indian corn*; and the farina, he observed, when very ripe, on shaking the stalk, will fly off in the dust, somewhat like smoke. He therefore, with good reason, judged that a westerly wind had wasted some few of the particles from the other hill, which had lit on the stiles of that ear, in a situation perfectly well fitted to receive them, which none of the other ears on the same hill had: And indeed he

he was surprised that he found no more of the same ear impre-  
nated in the same manner.

As Mr. *Logan* was very exact in this experiment and curio-  
ous enough in his observations, he thinks it may reasonably  
allow'd, that notwithstanding what M. *Geoffroy* may have  
liv'd of his trials on the same plant, that the silk was ta-  
ken quite away from those heads, and that in such as were com-  
bined with muslin none of the grains will grow up to their size, which  
prevented from receiving the *farina* to impregnate them; be-  
cause, when the ears of corn are disclosed, with all the head  
of seeds or grains in their ranges, with only a dry skin on each  
about the same size as when the little tender ears appear filled  
with milky juice before it puts out its silk. But the few grain  
that were grown on the single ear were as full and as fair as  
he had seen; the places of all the rest had only dry empty  
picles as he has described them; and he much questions, whether  
the same does not hold generally in the whole course of  
vegetation, tho' it may not be safe to pronounce absolutely upon  
without a great variety of experiments on different subjects. He  
believes there are few plants that will afford so fine an oppor-  
tunity for observation as the maiz or *Indian* corn; because  
stiles may be taken off or left on the ear, in any proportion  
and the grains be afterwards number'd in the manner men-  
tion'd.

*Some Observations of Eclipses of Jupiter's Satellites, at Southwick, near Oundle in Northamptonshire; by Mr. Lynn. Phil. Trans. N° 440. p. 196.*

THE telescope Mr. *Lynn* made use of in the follow-  
ing observations is the same as formerly, having a 13  
object glass, with an aperture of 2 inches and 4 tenths, and  
eye-glaiss of 2 inches and  $\frac{1}{2}$  focus; by apparent time at South-  
wick, near Oundle in Northamptonshire; longitude west of  
London 30 minutes as follows.

Year		Mon. D. H. M.
1730	The second satellite began to emerge	Apr. 29 10 19
	In a minute after it seemed to be as bright as the 4th satellite	
	And at full brightness about	Jan. 25 9 45
1729-30	The 4th satellite emerged	

Mon. D. H. M. S.

	The second sat. began to immerge Nov. 28	13	17	46
	And was quite out of sight		19	46
	The second sat. began to emerge Mar. 29	11	33	8
	And seemed at full brightness about		36	30
	The first sat. began to emerge Apr. 18	11	45	10
	And was at full brightness about		46	10
	Again the first began to emerge May 4	10	4	30
	Was at full brightness about		5	45
	And pass'd by the third satellite at		11	49
	The first sat. began to immerge Jan. 7	12	2	55
	And was quite out of sight about		4	25
	The third sat. began to immerge Jan. 28	14	16	00
	Was but equal in light to the second at		19	00
	Quite disappear'd at		24	00
	The second sat. began to emerge Apr. 30	12	23	57
	The first sat. began to emerge May 6	12	48	44
	The third sat. quite disappear'd Feb. 18	13	5	30
	Again the third sat. disappear'd Apr. 2	13	3	30
	But it began to fail of its light about 5 or 6 minutes before			
	The second satellite immerged May 28	10	45	00
	The third began to emerge Aug. 3	9	10	30
	And was 4 or 5 minutes before it came to its full brightness.			

cerning the High Tide in the River of Thames on Feb. 16,  
1735 6; by Mr. Jones. Phil. Trans. N° 440. p. 198.

Mr. Jones having in a former *Transaction* given an account of the tides flowing in the river of *Thames*, which flow'd 20 foot 5 inches and a half, as he took it by a line from that high water mark to low water the next morning, was 4 inches higher than had been known for 40 years before: He now adds, that having marked that high tide on a st; on the 16. of February, 1735 6 the tide rose at the same time 6 inches  $\frac{3}{4}$  above that mark, and flow'd near 2 foot the half hour but one before high water.

Had the tide flow'd its full time, it would have flow'd half an hour longer, and drowned the whole level.

*A singular cutaneous Distemper; by Dr. Abraham Vater.*  
Phil. Trans. N° 440. p. 199. *Translated from the Latin.*

**I**N Phil. Trans. N° 424 is an account of a very extraordinary and curious case of a distempered *cutis* or rather *cuticula* in a country lad of 14 years of age; it was so thick and hard as to be rather like the bark of a tree than a human skin; and like a case it covered his whole body; excepting the palms of the hands and soles of the feet, that he seemed to be enveloped in it, it was yearly shed in autumn.

This case is very well illustrated by the history of a girl 8 years of age, at *Gera* in *Voigtland*, a seat of the counts of *Reussen*, as the Dr. had it from Dr. *Harnischius*.

For some years before, she had laboured under a swelling of her joints and whole body; and after the use of several quack and other medicines, a remarkable hard tumour arose on her back between the shoulder-blades, which being taken for a beginning bunch, it was discussed by topical applications. But from that time there insensibly began to grow on her hands and feet, especially on the palms and soles, a dry hard crust, that projected a good way on the ends of the fingers and toes, and hindered her grasping and walking, so that she could neither stand nor go, but was fain to be carried. At times the crust sheds, especially after various inunctions; but thereby she became ill, and swoln, with anxiety and pains internally, that continued till the crust was again renewed: Upon which she found no other inconveniency then being depriv'd of the use of her hands and feet. In a year after, upon the disorder recurring, she was committed to the care of a surgeon, who with mercury, laxatives and cleansing decoctions removed the disease, and restored her skin to its former cleanliness: So that she seemed to enjoy a perfect state of health; but whether it should continue time must shew. Upon viewing this crust with a microscope, it plainly appears to consist of little scales, which the more evidently shews, that it is nothing other than the cuticle itself expanded and harden'd by a viscid and tartarous nutriment. The same Dr. *Harnischius* also relates that in a neighbouring town there is a young woman, who twice a year for a long time past has shed such a crust from her hands and feet as also from the nose, and found no relief from any medicines hitherto made use of. But this latter patient laboured under an obstruction of *Menses*, which seemed to be the source of this disorder.

*Experiments concerning the Vibrations of Pendulums; by Dr. Derham. Phil. Trans. N° 440. p. 201.*

THE account Mr. Bradley gave in *Phil. Trans.* N° 432, of observations made at Jamaica by Mr. Campbell, with a nice pendulum clock of Mr. Graham's making, brought to Dr. Derham's mind some experiments he made some years before, that may be of use in observations of this nature.

The first he takes notice of are some experiments he made in 1704, with excellent instruments, concerning the vibrations of pendulums in *vacuo*, that were published in *Phil. Trans.* N° 294: The sum of which is that the vibrations in *vacuo* were larger than in the open air, or unexhausted receiver; as also, that the enlargement or diminution of the vibrations, was constantly in proportion to the quantity of air, (or the rarity or density thereof,) which was left in the receiver of the air-pump. And as the vibrations were larger or shorter, so the times were augmented or diminished accordingly, *viz.* two seconds in an hour slower, when the vibrations were largest, and less and less, as the air was re-admitted, and the vibrations shortned.

But notwithstanding the times were slower, as the vibrations were larger, yet he had reason to conclude, that the pendulum really mov'd quicker in *vacuo*, than in the air; because the same difference or enlargement of the vibrations (as two tenths of an inch on a side) would cause the movement instead of two seconds in an hour, to go six or seven seconds slower in the same time, as he found by nice experiments.

The next experiments the Dr. mentions, he made at several times, *viz.* in 1705, 1706, and 1712, by the help of a good month-piece that swings seconds: The weight that then drove it was about 12 or 13 pounds, and it kept time exactly by the sun's mean motion: But by hanging on six pounds more, the vibrations were enlarged; but yet the clock gain'd 13 or 14 seconds in a day.

And as the increase or diminution of the power that drives the clock, accelerates or retards its motion; so, no doubt, doth cleanness or foulness affect it; and so doth heat and cold: For, all have the same effect upon the pallets and pendulum.

The last experiments the Doctor mentions, he made in 1716, and 1718, to try what effects heat and cold had upon

iron rods of the same length, or as near as possible to those that swing seconds. He made his experiments with round rods of about a quarter of an inch in diameter, and with square rods, about  $\frac{3}{4}$  of an inch square ; the effects on both which were the same.

At first he took the exact length of the rods in their natural temper : Then he heated them from end to end in a smith's fire, nearly to a flaming heat ; by which means they were lengthened two tenths of an inch. Then he quench'd them in cold water, which made them  $\frac{1}{10}$  of an inch shorter than in their natural state.

Then he warmed them, as near as he could guess, to the temper of his body, by which means they were about  $\frac{1}{100}$  of an inch longer than in their natural temper.

Afterwards he cool'd them in a strong frigorific mixture of common salt and snow, which shortened them  $\frac{1}{10}$  parts of an inch.

Afterwards he measur'd these rods, when heated in an hot sun, which lengthen'd them  $\frac{2}{10}$  parts of an inch more than their natural temper.

All these experiments seem to concur in resolving the phenomenon of pendulum clocks going slower under the equator, than in the latitudes from it : But yet he owns, that he has too good an opinion of Sir Isaac Newton's notion of the spheroidal figure of the earth, to part easily with it ; and therefore he leaves it to the consideration of others, how far the figure of the earth, and how far heat and cold, and the rarity and density of the air, are concerned in that phenomenon.

*The Construction and use of spherical Maps, or such as are delineated upon Portions of a spherical Surface ; by Mr. John Colson. Phil. Trans. N° 44°. p. 204.*

**G**eographical maps and hydrographical charts, tho' representations of a convex spherical surface ; yet at first were delineated upon planes, as being the most easy and obvious, tho' not the most natural and accurate representations : And they will be sufficiently near the truth, when the part of the earth or seas to be described is not of a very large extent ; and such have been usually call'd chorographical and topographical maps : But when the map is any thing general, or is to contain any large tract of the earth or seas, suppose, for instance, one of the four quarters of the world,

those round with both their means en he of an to the parts n an more the towns s no with others cold, that e de John ' re first ob ons: part arge cal ching seas, world, as they are call'd ; in that case, when the projection or representation is upon a plane, the parts must necessarily be distorted ; as one way contracted beyond the truth, and another way dilated : so as to give no just idea of the whole. Nor can this distortion be possibly avoided, when any considerable part of a spherical surface, by any projection whatever, is to be represented upon a plane. It is true, this distortion is always regular and according to certain laws : So that knowing the nature of the projection, it may tolerably well be allow'd for : But to do this scientifically, and as it ought to be done, requires much skill and accuracy in the maker, as well as good proficiency and experience in the user ; and therefore not so proper for an introduction to learners in the rudiments of geography ; young minds being apt to receive wrong notions and prejudices from them ; at least they cannot be rightly and easily instructed by them.

To obviate this inconvenience, geographers have contrived and constructed the terrestrial globe, on which they endeavour to delineate all the parts of the earth's surface in their natural state, as to longitude, latitude, distance, bearing, magnitude, &c. which being a true and genuine representation of the whole superficies of the earth, as far as it is hitherto known, is the best adapted for conveying just notions to young minds, and for preventing all false conceptions and prepossessions. After the first rudiments of geography have been imbibed from hence, they will then be prepared for the use of plain maps ; and will afterwards find, that large projections of particular countries, kingdoms and provinces *in plano*, will be of excellent service to them for their farther improvement in this useful and necessary science. Nor will they now be in any danger of being misled by such maps, tho' they are not such just and natural representations of the terrestrial globe.

Now the same conveniences, that may be derived from the whole globe, may, in proportion, be had from any notable portions of it ; as an hemisphere, a quadrant, a sextant, an octant, or other part ; but with this advantage besides, that these partial spherical maps will not only be much less cumbersome, and more managable than a whole globe, but may be made much more accurate and particular, as being capable of being formed to a much larger diameter than a globe can be conveniently made to. The maps may be first printed on a plane, as is usual in the common globes, and then

then pasted upon thin convex shells of pasteboard formed to the intended radius. The forming of these spherical coats of pasteboard will be matter of no great difficulty, even to a large a diameter as shall be desired; but the chief art will be required in projecting the maps *in plano*, after the simplest and exactest manner; so as that they may adapt themselves with as little error as possible, to a spherical surface: For, plane surface cannot be converted into a spherical surface without some error. The best method of doing this, with the least possible error, Mr. Colson thinks will be as follows.

Instead of the usual slips or gussets, as is the manner of globe-makers, comprehended between two meridians at some distance, and formed only tentatively and mechanically, without the help of any just theory, we may divide the whole spherical surface into parallel portions, or zones; that is, into parts terminated by two parallels to the equator, at the distance suppose of 10 degrees. As if the first of these portions, or zones, were at the equator itself, and extended five degrees of latitude on each side of that circle, the zone would be at the parallel of 10 degrees of latitude, and would extend to five degrees of latitude on one side, and 15 degrees of latitude on the other side of that parallel, and so of the succeeding zones.

Now we may conceive the first of these portions, or zones to be converted from a spherical to a plane surface in the following manner, without sensible error. Let the middle line of this zone, that is, the equator, continue in its situation, and let the segments of the meridians on each side be conceived to unbend themselves gradually, till they are extended into right lines perpendicular to the equator: This will make that, which was before a zone, or portion of a spherical surface, with a small alteration, become a portion of a cylindrical surface, circumscribed about the sphere; whose breadth is every where equal to 10 degrees of the sphere, and whose circumference is equal to the equator: And thus every parallel to the equator, as far as that of five degrees of latitude on each side will be stretched and extended into a circle, as large as the equator; but they will keep the same distance from one another, and from the equator, that they had before. This extension, or alteration, will be every where regular and uniform, and will be but very little, even where it is most: For, the least of these circles, which is the parallel of five degrees of latitude, has a

the proportion to the circle it is stretched to, or the equator, as the sine of 85 degrees has to the radius, or as 9961947 to 10000000, which approaches very near to a ratio of equality: And now it will be easily conceiv'd, that without undergoing any other alteration, or distortion, this portion of a cylindrical surface may be rectified, or extended into a plane parallelogram, whose length will be equal to that of the equator, and whose breadth will be equal to an arch of 10 degrees of the same equator.

And consequently, by an operation that will be just the reverse of this; if upon a plane we delineate such a parallelogram as this, we may then lay down all the places contained therein, very exactly, in their proper situation of longitude and latitude; and then apply its middle line or equator to that of a globe of a due magnitude, which will then become a portion of a cylindrical surface, circumscribed about the globe. Then by pressing it close to the body of the globe; we shall cause it to contract itself a very little, but regularly; which contraction will be only according to longitude, and not at all according to latitude: And then the cylindrical surface will be changed into that of a sphere, and become the first spherical zone before described, with all its delineations in their due position, without sensible error.

In like manner in the second spherical portion or zone, comprehended between the parallels of 5 and 15 degrees, whose middle line is the parallel of 10 degrees, we may conceive the segments of the meridians to unbend gradually on each side, and extend themselves into tangent right lines, which therefore will form a segment of a conical surface, still touching the globe in the parallel of 10 degrees of latitude. The axis of this cone will coincide with the prolonged axis of the globe; and the side of the cone, which is to be estimated from the vertex to the circle of contact, will be the co-tangent of the latitude, or the tangent of 80 degrees. Now this portion of a conical surface may easily be conceived to be unroll'd, or expanded into a plane surface, without undergoing any other alteration; and then it will become a portion of a sector of a circle; which portion will have for its length or middle line an arch of a circle, described with the aforesaid tangent, as a radius; whose length will be the same as the parallel of contact, and its breadth equal to an arch of the equator of 10 degrees, as before. This segment of a sector of a circle, so produced, may, there-

therefore, be easily described *in plano*, and within it may be inserted all the places belonging to it, according to their longitude and latitude: Then it must be applied to the globe; so as that its middle line shall coincide with the parallel of 10 degrees. Then by pressing, it may be bent to the surface of the globe, every meridian to its respective representative, by which it will uniformly contract a little according to longitude, but not at all according to latitude. And thus the globe will be cover'd as far as 15 degrees of latitude.

The next zone, or that belonging to the parallel of 20 degrees, may be constructed *a priori* in the following manner: Upon a plain paper, with radius equal to the tangent of 70 degrees, describe an arch, whose length is equal to that of the parallel of 20 degrees; as also two other concentric arches on each side, at a distance from the middle arch, equal to an arch of 5 degrees: This will be the requir'd segment of the circular sector, in which are to be inserted all the places belonging to it, according to their longitude and latitude. Then the middle line or arch is to be applied to the parallel of 20 degrees upon the globe, and the segment of the conical surface, thence arising, is to be duly contracted as before, or press'd close to the globe; by which means this zone will also be compleated. And in the same manner we are to proceed to the succeeding zones, till the whole globe is cover'd: And the method will not differ in any material circumstance, if instead of a whole globe, we are to construct any part of it only, or what Mr. Colson here calls a spherical map.

To reduce this theory to practice, and as a specimen of spherical maps, Mr. Colson has constructed a terrestrial hemisphere to a diameter of near 15 inches; to which he has given the name of the *British* hemisphere; because it has Great Britain in the centre, or rather at its vertex. It is therefore, adapted to the meridian and horizon of London, and exhibits one half of the earth's surface, as it lies round about this City; which is vastly the most considerable part of the whole earth's superficies. The longitude and latitude of places are here easily known by inspection, and their bearing and distances may be nearly estimated: And all the delineations are as accurate and particular as this small radius would permit: He, therefore, conceives it may be no unuseful instrument for instructing beginners, or for initiating young minds in the first rudiments of geography.

*Copy of an ancient Chirograph, or conveyance of Part of a Sepulchre, cut in Marble, lately brought from Rome, together with some Observations thereon, by Mr. Gale. Phil. Trans. N° 441. p. 211.*

The inscription at full length is as follows;

1 Diis	Manibus
2 Marci Herennij	
3 Proti, vixit annos viginti duos	
4 Menses duos, dies quinque, fecerunt Parentes	
5 Marcus Herennius Agricola &	
6 Herennia Lacena filio.	
7 Chirographum.	Ollaria numero quatuor
8 Cineraria quinquaginta tria intrantibus par-	
9 te lœvâ quæ sunt in monumento	
0 Titi Flavii Artemidori, quod est viâ	
1 Salariâ in agro Volusi Bafilides	
2 Ientibus ab urbe parte sinistra, Do-	
3 nationis causa Mancipio accepit	
4 Marcus Herennius Agricola de Tito Flavio	
5 Artemidoro Sestertio nummo uno Libripende Marco	
6 Herennio Justo, Antestatus est Tiberium	
7 Julium Erotem: Inque vacuam	
8 Possessionem earum ollarum	
9 Et cineriariorum Titus Flavius Arte-	
0 midorus Herennio Agricolæ ire	
1 Aut mittere, ossaque inferre per-	
2 misit, sacrumque quotiens face-	
3 re vellit Herennius Agricola	
4 Heredelue ejus permisit, Clavisve	
5 Ejus monumenti potestatem factu-	
6 rum se dixit, dolumque malum	
7 Huic rei abesse afuturumque	
8 Se hæc recte dari, fieri præstari-	
9 que stipulatus est Marcus Herennius	
0 Agricola, spepondit Titus Flavius	
1 Artemidorus Actum XVIII. Kalendas Januarii	
2 Caio Calpurnio Flacco, Lucio Trebio	
3 Germano	Cos.

This marble, lately arriv'd from *Rome*, and now reposit'd in Sir *Hans Sloane's Mu<sup>m</sup>eum*, is a very valuable piece of antiquity, as it exhibits a complete formula of a chirograph, or conveyance of one part of a burying place from one family to another, but neither of them of any note, seeming by their *agnomina* to have been only *Liberti*, or descended from such. *Agricola*, it is true, is a *Roman* name, but those of his wife *Lacena*, and his son *Protus*, are both *Greek*.

By this chirograph (line 7, 8, &c.) *Herennius Agricola* obtains from *Titus Flavius Artemidorus* a right to 4 *ollaria*; which were niches or repositories, wherein they placed *cineraria*, urns or vessels of stone or earth, containing the ashes of the dead; and were here 53 in number.

*Fabretti*, it is true, in *Inscript. ant. in ædibus pat. p. 16, 17,* takes the *cineraria* to have been niches for receiving and keeping stone-urns; but *Gatherius de jure Manium lib. 2. cap. 24* tells us, that *ossuariæ ollæ à cinerariis in eo differunt, quod ha* *cineres, illæ ossa exciperent*. Besides, if they were niches, of the same as *ollaria*, the mentioning of them as in this inscription, would be an unintelligible tautology; and *Spon*, in his *Miscellan. Antiq. Erudit. p. 290*, gives us the following inscription, which seems to put the matter out of dispute.

*Rome in operculo Vasis.*

CINERARIUM  
GEMELL. III AELI  
MARCI ET PHILIPPI.

From both which authorities it is evident, that the *cineraria* were vessels and not repositories for them.

This monument was situated on the left side of the *via Salaria*, which ran to the north-west of *Rome* from the *Porta Collina*. It stood in the ground of *Volusius Basiliades*; and the consideration for the conveyance of it, is one festerce. It is very usual in sepulchral inscriptions to find the monument of one family in the field of another; the proprietor of the monument reserving the right of that to himself when he sold the ground; or purchasing so much ground from the owner as was sufficient for erecting the monument. All sepulchres, when once a body was interr'd therein, were esteem'd as religious and sacred, and were not to follow the possession of the field.

Mill

*Mille pedes in fronte, trecentos cippus in agrum  
Hic dabat, bæredes monumentum ne sequeretur.*

Hor. I. Sat. 8.

Line 11. *Baslide* is a blunder for *Basilidis* in the genitive case.

Line 11, 12. The words *donationis causa mancipio accepit* M. Herennius *Agricola de Tito Flavio Artemidoro* II S.N. I. are to be read *sestertio nummo uno*, as is evidently demonstrated from the following inscription, where you have also the rest of the words of this form of conveyance. There is likewise in Gruter p. DCCCCLVI. 4. an inscription wherein the words *sestertio nummo uno* are express'd at length.

HOC. MONVMENTUM. SIVE  
SEPVLCHRUM. CUM AREA. SVA  
T. FV FICIUS FELIX. DE  
JVLIA RVFINA. DONATIONIS.

CAVSA MANCIPIO ACCEPIT  
II S. N. UNO. QUOD COMPARAVIT  
FVFICIÆ AMPHATÆ  
CONJVGI CARISSIMÆ, &c.

They were *verba solennia donationis vel alienationis causâ que fiebat per mancipium*. This mancipation was often a fictitious sale of a thing to make the donation of it valid, as in this case. And the mention of one sesterce given for it, is only *dicis gratiâ*, much like our form in leases, *in consideration of 5 shillings in hand paid*. Frequent examples occur of this practice, as in the inscription just now quoted from *Fabretti*, *in script. ant. in æd. pat. p. 50.* and others in the same author; and in *Gruter* (p. DCCCCLVI. 4. and MLXXXI.) which latter is a compleat formula of a like sepulchral conveyance as this, but of a later date, and not so well preserv'd; it being executed when the Emperor *Trebonianus Gallus*, and his son *Volusianus*, were Consuls A.D. 252; and this in Sir *Hans Sloane's* possession, probably (as shall be shewn farther on) during the reign of *Septimius Severus*.

Line 15. LIBR-J PENDE is cut in the marble as 2 distinct words, as here represented; tho' in reality it should be  
but

but one ; and signifies the person that weigh'd or counted over the money to the seller : It should be read LIBRIPENDE, than whom there could not be a more proper witness to the purchase. At the beginning of the Roman state their money was uncoined, and call'd *aes rude*, or *grave*, therefore, paid by weight ; whence comes the word *libripens*. Under *Serenus Tullius*, their sixth king, it began to be coined, and paid by tale ; but the person who counted it over to the receiver still retain'd his primitive appellation. Almost every considerable town had its *libripendes*, persons of skill in money affairs, to determine controversies about the value of it.

An inscription in *Gruter* (p. MCXV.I.) is a strong proof of this : It was found at *Nola* in *Campania*, and shews they had *2 libripendes* there appointed by publick authority.

T. VEDIVS. T. F.  
T. VITORIUS. CN. F.  
II. VIRI  
LIBRIPENDES  
EX. DD.

They had this name ; quia libram æneam tenebant, quam nummos penderent.

— *Libræ mercatus & ære.* Hor. Epist. II. 2.

And hence we have the words *stipendum*, *dispendum*, *expense*, and the like. In *Apuleius's Metamorph.* Book X. the following passage ; — sed ne forte aliquis, inquam, istorum quos offers aureorum, nequam vel adulter reperiatur, in his ipso facculo conditos eos annulo tuo prænota, donec altero in Nummulario præsente comprobentur ; where this *Nummularius* seems to be the same as the *libripens*, who was generally call'd in to count over and examine the money at payments for purchases, tho' sometimes a private person or friend to the party might probably perform this office for them, and be an evidence upon occasion, to the facts : To which end also they us'd bring another witness, as *Herennius Agricola* does here, who was one *Tiberius Julius Erotes*, and sometimes they added more. The form and manner of doing it was by asking by stander, *licetne antestari?* If he consented, the demandant touch'd, or pull'd, the lower part of his ear, as a *memorandum* of what pass'd : Whence *Horace* in his IXth Sat.

— casu venit obvius illi  
*Adversarius, & quo tu turpissime? magnâ  
 Exclamat voce, & licet antestari? Ego vero  
 Appono auriculam.*

By the law of the XII tables, if he that was call'd to testify this manner, or the *libripens* refused afterwards to give his evidence in the case, they were adjudged infamous. *A. Gell.* XV. c. 14.

Line 18, *Earum Ollarum* seems to be a mistake for *eorum agrorum.*

Line 20 to 27, are covenants usual upon this occasion, as may be seen in the like sepulchral contracts, particularly, the fore mentioned in *Gruter* (p. MLXXXI.I.) and many other nations and orders about monuments in his voluminous collection; as also in *Fabretti* and *Reinesius.*

Line 28, *S E* seems to have been a blunder of the marmorarius for *SIBI*, *se dari* being entirely ungrammatical. But in the contract aforesaid, given us by *Gruter*, the words run. *de re dolum malum abesse, afuturumque a te, hærede tuo, & his omnibus ad quos ea res pertinebit, hæc sic rectè dari, ri, præstarique stipulatus est;* which inclines Mr. *Gale* rather to believe, that *se* in the present case ought likewise to have been *sic*. There are several palpable mistakes in it, as in line 23, *vellit* for *velit*, and in line 24, *clavisve* for *clavisque*. The Roman lawyers tell us, that *stipulatio* was *interrogatio*, *solennibusque verbis concepta; & apta consentaneaque reponso, veluti spondes?* *spondeo. Dabis?* *Do.* This is fully confirmed both in this and the *Gruterian* contract (p. MLXXXI.I.)

The former *stipulatus est* *Marcus Herennius Agricola:* *spépondit T. Flavius Artemidorus:* In the latter, *stipulatus est* *Icinius Timotheus:* *spépondit Statia Irene.* The learn'd Mr. *Martaire* observes from *Aulus Gellius*, lib. VII. c. 9. that ancient authors used *e* instead of *o*, in those verbs which have a duplication in the preterite tense, as *memordi*, *peposci*, *spéndi*, for *momordi*, *poposci*, *spopondi*, us'd by more modern writers: So that *spépondit* is no mistake, but an archaismus, may the word *ientibus* in the 12th line; tho' it has not been marked, as the latter was. *Iens* in the nominative case was us'd more than once by *Cicero*; and tho' he declines it, as all other authors now in being, *euntis*, *eunti*, &c. yet it might originally have been declined *iensis*, *iensi*: But as there is now

no authority extant to warrant it, this must pass as mere conjecture.

Line 32, there are no such names to be found in any of the *fasti Consulares*, as *C. Calpurnius Flaccus*, and *Lucius Trebius Germanus*: So that they must have been, not the *Consules ordinarii* of the year, but the *Suffecti*. It is very strange that the Romans should so long adhere to this troublesome and uncertain method of computation by the years of their *Consuls*, since they had frequently several pairs of them in the same year, especially after the Government became imperial: Some reckon'd by the ordinary *Consuls*, who came into their office upon the 1st of *January*, about 600 years after the building of *Rome*: For, till that time the month of their entring upon that dignity was not fixed; and others computed by the *Suffecti* who might come in several months after, as vacancies happen'd or as they were appointed by the emperor; tho' their names were seldom inserted in the *fasti*. Besides this, it was impossible for any man to remember how many years were elapset from the present time upwards, to such and such *Consuls*, without tables of their succession, or having recourse to some other *era*, as the *A. V. C. anno urbis conditæ*, which they do not seem to have much regarded.

In *Gruter* (p. XLVI. 9.) there is a long inscription, mentioning *Trebius Germanus* (tho' not as *Consul*) in the reign of *Septimius Severus*; and another (p. CCCLXXXII. 7.) of *C. Calpurnius Flaccus*: If these men were the *Consuls* here referred to, as they might be, the age of the marble in Sir *Ham Sloane's* possession will be ascertained within a few years.

The stone is turn'd with an arch a top; the whole length of it is 27 inches and  $\frac{1}{2}$ ; the breadth at the bottom 10 inches and  $\frac{1}{2}$ ; and at the base of the arch 12 inches and  $\frac{1}{4}$ , it widen'd gradually upwards. The letters are cut in a small indifferent character; that of the E and the F are remarkable, being always formed in this manner *Ef.* It was probably placed over between the 4 niches, or *ollaria*, granted to *M. Herennius Agricola* in this monument by *T. Flavius Artemidorus*, in order to declare and assert the right and possession of them to the former and his family, till they were all filled.

the Revolutions, which small pendulous Bodies will, by electricity, make round larger ones from West to East, as the Planets do round the Sun; by Mr. Stephen Gray. Phil. Trans. N° 441. p. 220.

MR. GRAY made several new experiments upon the projectile and pendulous motion of small bodies by electricity, whereby small bodies may be made to move about larger ones, either in circles or ellipses, that are either concentrical or excentrical to the center of the larger bodies, out which they move; so as to make many revolutions about them; and this motion will be constantly the same as that the planets move about the sun, viz. from the right the left, or from west to east: But these little planets, if they may be so call'd, move much faster in the apogean, than in the perigean parts of their orbits; which is directly contrary to the motion of the planets about the sun.

The Construction of a Quicksilver Thermometer, as also Observations on the Eclipses of Jupiter's Satellites, made at Petersburgh, An. 1731, 1732; by M. Jos. Nic. De l'Isle. Phil. Trans. N° 441. p. 221.

M. De l'Isle, in order to have surer grounds for his experiments in natural philosophy in Russia, and to compare them with those of other countries, applied himself in winter 1733 to the construction of mercurial thermometers, regulated by the expansion of that fluid proportionably to bulk: This expansion is, it is true, not very perceptible, considering that Dr. Halley in his experiments made upon it upwards of 40 years before (as related in Phil. Trans. 197.) found that the said expansion, by the heat of boiling water, was no more than  $\frac{1}{4}$  part of the bulk of mercury, the experiment having been tried in the months of February and March, when the weather was cold enough, tho' it did not freeze.

M. Amontons likewise relates in the Memoirs of the Royal Academy for 1704, that this expansion of the mercury is  $\frac{1}{11}$  part of its bulk from the greatest heat to the greatest cold felt at Paris. But M. De l'Isle found in the great cold they had at Petersburgh on the 29 of January 1732-3. in the morning, that the bulk of the mercury was condensed almost to the extent it had in boiling water. The cold they had

had that day, the wind being at east, was one of the severest that ever was felt there.

*M. De l'Isle* had his new thermometers made of a good large size, and in such manner, that having divided in each the whole quantity of mercury it contains, into one hundred thousand parts; and having marked the extent of the bulk of that mercury in boiling, he can at any time, by observing on the divisions of these thermometers, by how many parts the bulk of the mercury is condensed thro' the present temperature of the air. And tho' he had made four of these thermometers, which differ very much as to size, and the quantity of mercury they contain, yet they agree within very few of these parts. As pure mercury is of the same nature every where, and not liable to any alteration from being inclosed in a tube; and as it is probable, that taking equally purified, it will in different countries be subject to the same expansion, if exposed to the same degree of heat. For this reason he is perswaded, these thermometers may very well serve to compare the temperature of different countries; the rather, as he found by experience, that these thermometers may be rendered fit enough to mark sensibly the increase or diminution of the bulk of the mercury within one or two parts out of the 100,000 contained in the whole bulk. This sort of thermometers has also this advantage, that as they mark the proper expansion of the mercury in each temperature of air, they may serve to shew every moment the correction, to be made in the height of the mercury in simple barometers; which will serve for reducing them to the height they would have in an equal temperature of air: And one might, for this end, chuse and agree upon the heat of boiling water, as a fixed term, which in appearance will be the same all over the world. If the Royal Society should approve of this new construction of thermometers, and order some of their members to make them like, we might hereafter be able exactly to compare the temperature of *England* with that of *Russia*, and other places where the like thermometers should be made.

*M. De l'Isle* having in 1724 receiv'd of Dr. *Halley* a copy of his astronomical tables among which are those of the four satellites of *Jupiter* by Mr. *Bradley*, he judged that could not be any better, till some method shall be found to explain geometrically to deduce from the laws of gravitation the effects of the mutual attraction of these satellites on

other, and with relation to *Jupiter*: But as he could not hope this would be done so soon, he took the pains again to calculate new tables upon those of Mr. *Bradley*, by reducing the tables of the four satellites into the same form with those which Mr. *Pound* has made of the first satellite only. These tables being thus made easy, he has hitherto used them for comparing observations; and his brother has taken the pains, since the drawing up those tables, in the said manner, to calculate a year beforehand, all the eclipses of the four satellites. M. *De l'Isle* commonly sent those calculations to his correspondents to prepare them for observations, and some parts of those ephemerides have been published in the little Gazette of Literature of Leipsick, published in High Dutch. His brother prolonged those calculations to the month of January 1737.

Here follow the observations on *Jupiter's* satellites, which were made at *Petersburgh*.

N. St. true time.

31 Dec. 6. 17<sup>h</sup> 3' 5"

The immersion of the first satellite difficultly observ'd with a reflecting telescope of five foot: The true time was found only by means of two clocks.

32 Jan. 4. 13 30 56

Immersion of the 2d satellite by the reflecter, doubtful to a few seconds: *Jupiter* not being well defined, nor sufficiently high. The true time adjusted by two clocks.

9. 18 33 7

Immersion of the 4th satellite by the reflecter: The sky not very serene; and the true time adjusted only by two clocks.

32 Jan. 9. 20 25 0

The other satellites disappearing by the day-light, the fourth was not yet emerged out of the shadow; the telescope the same.

Feb. 22. 13 25 34

The first satellite, just entering the shadow, was still visible, when a mist cover'd *Jupiter*.

13 26 34

*Jupiter* being uncover'd, the first satellite did not now appear through

Z

N. St. true time.

1732 Mar. 8. 8<sup>h</sup> 22 20"

April 3. 8 46 23

13. 7 20 30

20. 11 6 52

27. 15 13 0

May 10. 12 55 54

26. 11 14 5

Dec. 24. 18 4 30

through the reflecting telescope.  
The true time was adjusted  
by two clocks.

Immersion of the 3d satellite  
by the reflecting telescope : The  
wind was somewhat trou-  
blesome ; the true time was adju-  
ted by two clocks.

Emersion of the 1st satellite  
by the reflecting telescope  
doubtful to a few seconds,  
reason of the satellite's near-  
ness to the planet.

Immediately after sun-set,  
Jupiter becoming visible to the eye,  
the 3d satellite appeared to  
out of the shadow, and entire-  
ly clear by the reflecting telescope.

Emersion of the 3d satellite  
by the reflecting telescope. The  
sky serene.

The 3d satellite had proba-  
bly been come out of the shadow  
several minutes : For, the other  
satellites did not appear before  
than this, which was seen with  
the reflecting telescope thro' the  
mist, Jupiter being low, and  
crepusculum strong.

Emersion of the first satellite  
by the reflecting telescope ;  
sky serene ; the observation certain.

Emersion of the first satellite  
by a telescope of 13 foot, cloudy,

Immersion of the first satellite  
by a 13 foot telescope, good  
observation.

Experiments on perforating the Thorax, and the Effects thereof in respiration; by Dr. William Houston. Phil. Transl. N° 441. p. 230. Translated from the Latin.

Exp. 1. APRIL 1728. Dr. Houston with a narrow scalpel made a puncture on each side of the thorax of a small dog, and yet the animal barked and howled no less strongly than he had done before; and gave no signs of a faulty respiration: Whence some of the assistants suspected, that the instrument had not been plunged deep enough into the cavity of the thorax: To remove this suspicion, he made two other punctures; but the success was entirely the same: For, both his voice and life continued sound and entire from 9 o'clock in the morning, till about six in the evening, when he was kill'd, in order to observe what had happen'd.

Upon opening the thorax, the four wounds of the membrane, that surrounds the ribs easily appeared; so that every one of them had penetrated into the cavity of the thorax. But upon inflating the lungs, no default appeared in them, tho' the knife had penetrated almost an inch into their cavities; nor did the air expire faster than it usually does out of the soundest lungs.

Exp. 2. In August the same year, the Doctor made the same experiment on two puppies about four days old, by punctures on each side of the thorax in the one, and large wounds in the other, so that the lungs came to view on each side, yet they did in no manner subside, but rather seem'd to be protruded externally. Both animals continued howling for  $\frac{1}{4}$  of an hour, when an end was put both to their life and misery.

Exp. 3. About the beginning of November the same year, the Doctor opened the thorax of a middling dog, by a large wound on each side: And passing his finger through the apertures into each cavity of the thorax, he felt the lungs collapsed in such manner, that the space between them and the membrane that surrounds the ribs was about an inch: Two other students of physick likewise passed their fingers thro' the apertures, and affirmed they perceiv'd the same thing: But upon loosing the dog, he immediately got up pretty cheerful, ran through the room, and howl'd: No tents were put into the apertures, nor any thing upon the wounds before next day, when bolsters with turpentine were applied

plied. The dog being kept for three days after was so far from losing his voice, that his howling became pretty troublesome, and at length being let loose, he ran away.

*Exp. 4. January 14. 1729.* the Doctor having procured a young dog, had a mind to open the *thorax*, and give a passage to the air, without wounding much the skin and muscles, to prevent a troublesome hemorrhage, and unnecessary pain. By means of the instrument called *trois quarts*, he introduced a goose-quill pipe into each cavity of the *thorax*, with a piece of leather fixed to it, done over with pitch, that might stick to the skin, after first shaving it, and thus retain the pipe : But the moveable *cutis* soon extracted it out of the cavity of the *thorax* : And tho' he attempted the same thing by new punctures, it always proved unsuccessful : Then he separated on each side by a long incision the *cutis*, and afterwards cut asunder the intercostal muscles, and penetrated in to both cavities of the *thorax*, as appeared by the air violently rushing out :

The day following he put into the orifices tents of *canum*, which being thicker at each end, and slenderer in the middle required neither bandage nor plaster to keep them on : And yet the dog neither died, nor lost his voice, but eat, drank, and seem'd to be pretty well, only he could scarce lie on his side, on account of the uneasiness of the wounds, especial the tents. Upon pulling out these latter, a passage sometimes was given the air, nay, one side was blown into the pipe. After the dog had continued so for two days without having his voice sensibly impaired, on the 3d day both the tents were of a sudden forcibly expelled ; and the air passing, and repassing freely through the orifice made such a hissing, that the dog, partly frighten'd, as seem'd, with the noise, and partly afraid of being further hurt, run away and hid himself under the bed. Upon taking him out from thence, the Doctor again put the tent into the wounds, but in a little time after they flew out again. And in this condition he liv'd from 10 o'clock in the morning till about five in the evening, when next day (being the fourth from the perforation of the *thorax*) he was strangled. He gave no signs of a faulty respiration before the end of the 3d day, at which time he was a little short-winded.

Upon opening the *thorax*, it contained a pretty large quantity of sanies on each side. The lungs were contracted in a narrow compass, and so far as the Doctor and such

re present could observe, they were whole on one side, wounded on the other.

For farther satisfaction about this matter, Dr. Van Swieten Leyden made the following experiment, at which Dr. Houston was present.

*Exp. 5. January 25, 1729* having tied upon a board a middle-sized dog, and opened the *thorax* by making a large wound on each side; the dog did not lose his voice, and the lungs were so far from being collapsed that a lobule of them on each side burst out through the aperture; these lobules thus sticking out ceased not to dilate and contract; what was most surprizing, their dilatation was synchronal with the contraction of the *thorax*, and *e contra*; upon blowing into the cavity of the *thorax*, the respiration was no ways impeded. After the dog had liv'd in this manner for half an hour, without having the voice or respiration sensibly impeded, the *thorax* was farther opened on one side, by cutting asunder a rib; and then it appeared, that the lungs which is greatly surprizing, contract, while the *thorax* dilates, and *e contra*. The dog likewise survived this operation, till after all the company were satisfied about the manner he was condemned to be strangled.

The unexpected phenomena of these experiments made Houston try the following one in company with some friends; in order to examine whether the lungs always applied to the membrane of the *pleura*, whilst the *thorax* was open.

*Exp. 6* After extending and tying down firmly upon a board a small dog, and raising up the skin, we cut a piece off with a pair of Scissars in that part of the *thorax*, where the ribs least cover'd by the incumbent muscles. Upon wiping the blood, and stopping its flux with spirits of wine, we cut off with a pair of pincers all that cover'd the ribs and intercostal muscles; and at length we carefully separated the intercostal muscles themselves. The *pleura* being laid bare in this manner exhibited the following phenomena. During the dilation of the breast, a kind of white body appeared to apply the inside of the *pleura*, but upon its contraction, and the animal's expiration, that white body flying upwards gave place to a certain ascending red body, and then the breast immediately dilating itself, the red body descended again, and the white one succeeded in its room, and thus alternately. On this, we likewise bared of its muscles the upper intercostal slice

stices of the ribs, but in that place there appeared nothing but the white body. During the dilation of the breast, the pleura became concave in each part where it was bared, and during its contraction, a little, but scarce sensibly, convex.

After having sufficiently viewed all this, and cut aside two ribs, we open'd the breast by making so large a wound that almost all the contents of that side appear'd to the eye : Upon this the animal no longer emitted a cry, though the thorax on the other side was untouched : The lobe was suddenly much collapsed ; but did not entirely lose its alternate motion of dilatation and contraction ; and according to every one present its dilatation was synchronous to the contraction of the thorax, and *è contra* : At length the ventricle of the heart was penetrated for the finger to feel its muscular force : And thus at once a period was put to the dog's respiration and life.

Dr. Houston was formerly of opinion that man, or other of the more perfect animals, (for, the case is otherwise with frogs, &c.) could not live upon admitting air into the cavities of the thorax : But the falsity of this opinion is sufficiently evinced by the above-mentioned experiment, and at the same time they seem to be repugnant to the opinion of respiration generally receiv'd, namely that the lungs are dilated by the weight of the air entering thro' the larynx, when its pressure is taken off their external surface by the dilation of the thorax : But he thinks that this apparent repugnancy may be removed, or at least lessened, in the following manner.

Let us suppose, that both wounds are double the aperture of the glottis ; but that the lungs are entire, and destitute of all contractile force ; and now let the thorax be dilated, and filled by the lungs distended with air, then ;

1. Upon the first contraction of the thorax, the air escape through the glottis.

2. When the thorax is again dilated, the air will enter in the proportion of its increased capacity ; but it will not enter thro' the glottis, nor all thro' the wounds, but thro' each aperture proportionally ; and the quantity, entering through the glottis, will be to that entering through the wounds, as the aperture of the glottis to the sum of the apertures of the wounds ; or in the present case as 1 to 10. Therefore, the air, with which the lungs are now inflated,

of what they would be inflated with, had the *thorax* remained intire.

3. While the *thorax* is contracted a 2d time, the air should be out the same way it enter'd at in the preceding dilatation; and if the apertures continue without any alteration, the air, that enter'd thro' the wounds, should pass through them precisely in the same time that the air, which enter'd thro' the *glottis*, passes through it: So that no air will remain between the lungs and the *pleura*, but every thing will be in the same state, as at the end of the first contraction; and if  $\frac{1}{3}$  of the usual inflation of the lungs be sufficient for the life and voice of the animal; or if it can dilate the *thorax* five times more than usual, then nothing hinders but that upon opening the *thorax* in this manner the animal may live and recover his voice.

The Dr. supposed one thing entirely false, namely, that the lungs were without any contractile force; which would return the whole, were there not a compensation some other way: But it is evident, that the aperture of the *glottis* may be contracted or dilated at the pleasure of the animal, nay, actually dilated, during inspiration, but contracted during expiration, at least when the voice is forming; whence it happens that the ingress of the air can be so much assisted by the dilatation of the *glottis*, as it is hindred by the contraction of the lungs; and its egress so much hindred by the contraction of the *glottis* as it is assisted by the contraction of the lungs: And an equilibrium may be preserv'd, or the one or the other cause prevail, according as the animal may have a power of changing the *glottis*, or according as he uses it: which likewise agrees very well with the phenomena, for when the dog howl'd, the lungs burst out through the wounds; and while he was quiet, they enter'd in again, and never appeared.

As to the phenomenon of the lungs being observ'd to dilate while the *thorax* was contracted, the Dr. takes this to have been owing to no other cause than to the contraction of the muscles of the abdomen with a vast and convulsive force, whereby they drove every thing upwards, and considerably lessen the capacity of the *thorax*; whence the air, driven from the lower, tended to the upper parts of the lungs; and tho' the lobe (in respect of the whole) was contracted, yet in that part where it regarded the wound, it was dilated.

In *Exp. 6.* It is self evident that the white body was the lungs, and the red, the diaphragm; as also that the lungs fill the whole capacity of the thorax; and as is commonly supposed, apply their superficies to its membrane.

Yet there still remain other difficulties in this matter, to be remov'd by more accurate experiments, and cleared up by ingenious men.

*Observations, astronomical, physical and meteorological, for the Year 1733, at Wittenberg; by M. Weidler. Phil. Trans. N° 441. p. 238. Translated from the Latin.*

**A** Conjunction of *Saturn* and *Mars*: On Feb. 5, at 7h. 30 min. in the evening, both these planets were seen in a straight line with *Bayer's E* of *Pisces*, as represented in Fig. 23. Plate VI.

<i>Saturn and Mars distant 2° 15' 0"</i>
<i>Mars and E of Pisces 1 12 30</i>

Feb. 19. at 7h. 15 min. in the evening, the distance of *Mars* from *o* of *Pisces* towards the north was observ'd 1° 17' 30.

The mildness of the preceeding winter in February and March occasioned epidemical, catarrhous fevers.

Mar. 14, the cold, felt that day sharper than ordinary, was brought by a very stormy north-east wind that blew 2 days before.

An observation of a solar eclipse made apart on the 1<sup>st</sup> of May O. S. is to be found in *Phil. Trans. N° 433.*

May 3, an *aurora borealis* is said to have appear'd.

May 5, the cold in the night injured the vines and walnuts, and likewise nipt the corn every where, in the lowest grounds, so that afterwards the ears had no corn in them.

June 26, in the evening, an *aurora borealis* appear'd, and shot forth the usual pyramids about 12 o'clock at night.

Oct. 27. there again appear'd an *aurora borealis*; about 7 o'clock in the evening a black arch, covered with a white *fascia*, was observed under the north; at 8h. 30' a white zone lying upon the black arch expanded insensibly higher, to about 40 degrees, and this lucid space continued quiet till 10 o'clock. After 10, pyramidal radiations shot forth swiftly every where from the white tract, and undulating clouds also roll'd along the heavens, but the entire white edge was sometimes observ'd to rise like a lucid wave towards the pole. This undulation

shining matter, by pyramidal rays, much brighter than that  
shining tract, afterwards blending therewith, lasted till 11 o'clock:  
the whole shining matter gradually moved towards the east, in  
the room of which succeeded black discontinued clouds towards  
the west. A little before 11 a white cloud shone for a longer  
time near the north-west, and afterwards it became red, and its  
latter likewise had an undulatory motion. The scene vanish'd  
after 11 o'clock; the air, all the time of the appearance was  
calm; and the stars shone every where thro' the white tract:  
what seemed remarkable to M. Weidler was, that the very  
next day prov'd dark and rainy; as also that in the night after  
the 29th there blew an exceeding stormy wind; since at other  
times after the more remarkable *auroræ boreales* there usually  
ucceeds more serene weather.

The same phenomenon of an *aurora borealis* was likewise ob-  
served at Stockholm in Swedland.

*An Account of the crooked and angular appearance of the streaks or darts of Lightning in Thunder-storms; by Mr. Logan.* Phil. Trans. N° 441. p. 240.

M R. Stephen Hales in his *Statistical Essays*, Vol. II. p. 291. mentions this phenomenon of the streaks or darts of lightning in thunder storms appearing crooked and angular, a thing not hitherto accounted for: and therefore, he professes at a solution of it.

The clouds are generally distinct collections of vapours, like fleeces; and therefore, the rays of light through them must pass through very different densities; and accordingly suffer very great refractions: From thence therefore, that appearance must undoubtedly arise. For, it is highly absurd to imagine, that fire darted with such rapidity can form any assignable cause deviate from a right line, in the manner it appears to us: And this, if duly considered may probably be found a plenary solution.

*Observations on the aurora borealis made in England; by M. Celsius.* Phil. Trans. N° 441. p. 241.

SEPT. 13, 1735, in the town of Woodford, 6 miles to the north-east of London, at half an hour after 11 at night there appear'd a bright *fascia*, almost parallel to the horizon; and its middle was judged to be under  $\gamma$  of the great bear. At times another light shot along the great bear; but almost constantly cover'd  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$ .

## Oct. 4. In King-street, Bloomsbury, London.

	<i>h</i>	<i>m</i>	<i>s</i>	
At	9	22	0	p. m. a ray or stream of light appeared under the polar star, perpendicular to the horizon.
	9	24	13	That ray disappear'd.
	9	27	6	Two perpendicular rays shot forth 5 or degrees from the north towards the east.
	9	28	50	A whitish ray shot forth again exact under the polar star.
	9	30	0	That ray moved westward.
	9	31	0	It was seen under $\eta$ of the great bear.
		31	27	It entirely disappear'd.
	9	36	8	A ray ascending perpendicularly by the polar star, and $\alpha$ and $\beta$ of the great bear.
	9	40	0	The ray seemed to move gradually up $\xi$ of the great bear.
	9	44	0	No more rays appear'd: But when there were any remains of light near the horizon, or in the west, M. Celsius could see, by reason of the neighbouring houses,

## Oct. 11. in London.

	<i>h</i>	<i>m</i>	<i>s</i>	
At	10	37		p. m. There were two bright rays $\gamma$ and $\epsilon$ of the great bear.
	10	39	0	A ray between $\varsigma$ of the great bear and the polar star.
	10	39	30	A ray in form of a pyramid above the great bear.

These rays had not any motion parallel to the horizon; but they entirely disappeared.

Jan. 11. 1735-6 in London

	<i>h</i>	<i>m</i>	<i>s</i>	
At	10	0	0	p. m. an indifferently bright arch, towards the edges, appear'd 16 degrees one of its ends descended eastward up $\gamma$ of the great bear: And lucid streaks appear'd now and then over this arch.

- h.      "      "
- at 11 13    o Under this arch was another very bright tract parallel to it, 5 degrees above the horizon; in which tract there were rays that shot from the west towards the east.
- 11 15    o This arch was very faint.
- 11 17    o The first arch became brighter, and the lower arch was almost blended with the upper, and broken in the middle.
- 11 20    o The whole arch was beset with faint rays.
- 11 21    o One of the rays under the polar star.
- 11 27    o No arch, nor rays, but here and there bright tracts.
- 11 36    c The light reach'd up to the polar star, and somewhat higher.
- 11 44    o A lucid ray under the polar star.
- 12 11    o The sky was overcast with clouds, except one lucid streak which appear'd 3 or 4 degrees to the east of the north.

## Feb. 16. in Clare-hall Cambridge

At a quarter past eight in the evening, the moon shining very right, there appear'd 2 perpendicular streams between the great and little bear.

## April 3. at London.

- h.      "      "
- at 8 46    o M. *Celsius* observ'd a lucid arch one degree broad, which extended along the northern crown, the belt of Bootes, the coma Berences, the lesser Lion and Cancer, as far as the smaller dog.
- 8 49 36    o This arch quite disappear'd: But at the same time he observ'd another broader and brighter arch under Cassiopeia, 7 or 8 degrees high.

In the observations of October 4. and in the last, M. *Celsius* is certain as to the time of the clock: So that if others have observed the same phenomena, the longitude of places may be determin'd by them with greater exactness than by Jupiter's satellites; which he takes to be the principal use that may be made of these observations, especially in making maps of the northern countries, where these lights do more frequently occur.

A a 2

Same

Some Experiments made on mad Dogs, with Mercury,  
Dr. Robert James. Phil. Trans. N<sup>o</sup> 441. p. 244.

**T**HE following is an account of some experiments made on mad dogs with mercury, which Dr. James has some reason to believe is the most effectual preservative, and perhaps even a cure for the *hydropophobia*.

About Michaelmas, 1731, Mr. Floyer of Hints complain'd that he was afraid of a madness amongst his fox-hounds: For, that morning one had run mad in the kennel. The Dr. took this opportunity of telling him, that he had long believ'd that mercury would, if tried, prove the best remedy against this infection: Mr. Floyer neglected this advice till the February following. Mean time he tried the medicine in Bates, commonly known by the name of the pewter-medicine; as also every thing else that was recommended to him by other sportsmen, but to no purpose: For, some of his hounds run mad almost every day after hunting. Upon this he took his hounds to the sea, and had every one of them dipt in the salt-water; and at his return, he brought his pack to another Gentleman's kennel, 6 miles distant from his own. But notwithstanding this precaution, he lost 6 or 7 couple of his dogs in a fortnight's time. At length in February Mr. Floyer tried the experiment the Dr. had recommended, upon 2 hounds that were mad, and both very far gone. They refused food of all sorts, particularly fluids, slaver'd much, and had all the symptoms of a *hydropobia* to a great degree. That night he gave 12 grains of turpeth mineral to each of the 2 dogs, which vomited and purged them gently. Twenty four hours after this, he gave each 14 grains; and after the same interval he gave 48 more to each. The dogs salivated very much, and soon after lapp'd warm milk. At the end of 24 hours more he repeated to one dog 24 grains more, and omitted it to the other. The dog, that took this last dose, lay upon the ground, salivated extremely, was in great agonies, and had all the symptoms of a salivation rais'd too quick; but got thro' it: The other relapsed and died.

To all the rest of the pack he gave 7 grains of the turpeth for the first dose, 12 for the 2d dose, at 24 hours distance which was repeated every other day for some little time. The method was repeated at the 2 or 3 succeeding fulls and change of the moon. From this time he lost not another hound; and tho' several afterwards were bit by strange dogs, the turpeth always prevent'd any ill consequences.

The Dr. and his friends tried the same thing upon a great many dogs, and it never fail'd in any one instance : Tho' dogs, at the same time and by the same dogs, have run mad after other medicines had been tried.

As to the experiments on mankind, the Dr. had opportunities of making but 3.

The first was on a girl about 14 years of age : The calf of her leg was torn by a mad dog in such a manner, that the surgeon was obliged to use means to prevent a mortification from the bite : She was vomited by the turpeth : Three days before the next change of the moon, the vomit was repeated, and again the very day of its changing. The same method was pursued the next full moon. The girl was very well.

The second was on a boy of about 10 years of age. He had holes in one of his legs, made by a mad dog. The turpeth was given as above, and the wounds dress'd with digestives, and he continues well.

The third case was that of a young man, of about 18 years of age : The bite was upon the hand. A great number of dogs were bit at the same time in the town where he liv'd. About 6 days after the mischief was done, several dogs, that had been wounded, ran mad ; upon which he applied himself to Mr. Wilson, apothecary in Tamworth, to whom the Dr. had communicated the success of the turpeth in this case. The young man was at this time very melancholy and dejected, had tremors, and slept very little for some nights before, tho' he was not apprehensive that the dog which bit him was mad. He had a dry scab upon his hand : Upon applying to Mr. Wilson he was vomited with *Vin. Benedict.* 3 ij.

The next thing he took was made according to the following prescription.

R<sub>x</sub> Turpeth Min. gr. XII. Lap. Contrayerv. 3*iij.* Ther. Androm. q. s. M. F. Bol. N° 3, sumat unum singulis noctibus horâ decubitus suprabibendo Julap. seq. cochl. IV. 3*j.* aq. Rut. 3*vij.* Theriac. 3*ij.* Syr. Paeon. c. 3*iss.* Tinct. astor. 3*ij.* M. F. Julap.

Upon taking these the patient sweat very much, and had 2 stool every day after them. His tremors went off, and he slept better. After this he went into the cold bath, and continued perfectly well.

But what is remarkable in this case is, that the wound ran a thick digested matter after this method, and threw off the scab like an *escar* ; after which it heal'd of itself.

The

The Dr. makes an observation or two on the antiquity of the disease, which he rather chooses to do; because Cælius Aelianus, in his account of it, does not seem to build so much upon the authority of Homer, as, in the Dr's opinion he might have done. He quotes, it is true, a passage out of the 8th Iliad where Teucer calls Hector κυνα λυσσηνες, but does not seem to think this sufficient to prove that Homer was acquainted with this madness. But he omits 2 more passages in the same author, which, joined with this, amount to a demonstration that Homer was by no means ignorant of it. The first is in the 9th Iliad, l. 237 where Ulysses is upon his embassy to Achille, and describes to that hero the distresses of the Grecian army through his absence; and when he has painted Hector as terrible as can, he compares his fury to the rage of a mad dog.

— Ἐκτῷρ δὲ μεγά θεοῖ βλεμεανων  
Μαίνεται εκπαγλως, πιστυνος Διος, καὶ τι τις  
Ἀνερρεις καὶ Θεος, κρατερη δὲ ε λυσσα δεδυκεν, i.e.

— *Hector vero valde trucibus oculis adspiciens  
Furit terribiliter, fretus Jove: Nec quicquam honorat  
Viros neque Deos; ingens autem ipsum rabies invagt.*

If Homer had designed to describe a mad dog as a physician he could not have expressed his looks by a more proper term than *βλεμεανων*. It must also be consider'd, that this description is directed to Achilles, who, having studied physic under Chiron, was consequently more capable of receiving an idea of the mischief Hector did to his countrymen by this metaphor.

In the 13th Iliad, Hector is again call'd *Λυσσανος* by Diomedes.

It must be observed that *λυσσα*, *λυσσηνη* and *λυσση* can properly and in their natural signification be applied to other madness than that peculiar to a dog, tho' metaphoricallly it may, as in the instances the Dr. has given, as also in Solon and Euripides. The term *λυσσα* or *λυττα* is used by Aristotle, Galen and Dioscorides, to signify the madness of dogs. And *Λυσσοδηκτος* is used by the last mentioned author to signify a man bit by a mad dog. *Λυσσων* is used by Aretæus in this sense, and *Λυττωσις* by Plutarch to express the same thing.

What the Dr. would infer from this is, that Homer was certainly acquainted with the madness of dogs; and if dogs in those days ran mad, it is probable they would bite men; and it

be sure, an *hydropobia* would be the consequence: And yet it is certain, that it was first taken notice of in the days of *Asclepiades*, famous for his practice in *Rome* before the death of *Mithridates*.

Another strong evidence of its antiquity is that instinct which directs every dog to avoid a mad dog upon smelling, seeing, or even hearing him. If this be not instinct, it is reason, and that a higher degree than we ourselves can pretend to. Now instinct must be coeval with the creation, or at least the fall; and therefore, madness must not be much younger.

*Catoptric Microscope*; by Dr. Robert Barker. Phil. Trans. N° 442. p. 259.

THO' microscopes, composed of refracting glasses only, have been vastly improved, as to their effects of magnifying; yet they have been attended with such great inconveniences, that their application to several arts, in which they might be very convenient, is not so common as might be expected; and mankind have reap'd but a small part of the advantage obtainable from so surprising and useful an instrument. Among the inconveniences mentioned, the following are the most considerable.

1. That in order to magnify greatly, it is necessary the object shall be a portion of a very minute sphere, whose *focus* being very short, the object must be brought very near; it will, therefore, be shaded by the microscope, and not be visible by any other light than what passes thro' itself: In this case, therefore, opaque objects will not be seen at all.

2. Objects, illuminated this way, may be rather said to eclipse the light, than to be truly seen, little more being exactly represented to the eye, than the out-line; the depressions and elevations within the out-line appearing like so many lights and shades, according to their different degree of thickness or transparency; tho' the contrary happens in ordinary vision, in which the lights and shades are produced by the different exposure of the surface of the body to the incident light.

3. Small parts of large objects cannot easily be applied to the microscope, without being divided from their wholes, which in the case of vivi-section defeats the experiment, the part dying, and no more motion being observ'd therein.

4. The *focus* in the dioptric microscope being so very short, exceeding nice, the least deviation from it rendering vision turbid; therefore, a very small part of an irregular object can be seen distinctly this way.

To

To remedy these defects, Dr. Barker has contriv'd a microscope on the model of the Newtonian telescope, in which he has been very much assisted by Mr. Scarlet Junior. As to the effects of this instrument, it magnifies from the distance of 9 to 24 inches.

Fig. 3. Plate VII. represents the entire microscope mounted on its pedestal, on a proper joint, contriv'd so as to direct the instrument towards any object.

Fig. 4. The section of the instrument, in which A B is the larger concave metalline speculum; C D the lesser concave metalline speculum; E F a hollow brass screw to fasten in the dioptrical glass, or plano convex glass; G H another screw fastening on the hollow cylinder E F I K (in which the dioptrical glasses are contain'd) to the body of the microscope; I K a cap with a small perforation, serving as an aperture to the eye-glass or second lens (convex on both sides) M L a long screw passing thro' the nuts P and V, serving to bring the small speculum at a proper distance from the larger; N Q a sliding piece moved by the screw, carrying the stem Q R; and little speculum C D Y X a screw for the cap as represented at Fig. 5; that at Fig. 6 is to be screwed on the aperture I K.

Fig. 7. shews the construction of the microscope, in which there is an object supposed erect, from which rays falling on the speculum a b, will be reflected to the focus k, where they will form an inverted image, and being reflected by the small speculum c d, they will pass thro' the perforation of the great speculum and falling on the plano-convex glass e f, converge again, and form an erect image at l; which being brought very near to the eye, and so considerably magnified, will be distinctly seen through the eye-glass g h.

*An Account of the standard Measures preserv'd in the Capitol at Rome; by Mr. Folkes. Phil. Trans. N° 44 p. 262.*

IN the wall of the capitol is a fair stone of white marble 8 foot 5 inches English in length, and 1 foot 9 inches and a half in breadth; upon which are inscribed the standards of several measures with the following respective inscriptions.

Piede Ro: Pal. IIII. Onc. XII. Deti XVI

Piede Gre

Ca

Canna di Architet. Palmi X.

Staiolo Pal. V. Quar. III.

Canna di Merca. Palmi otto d'altra misura

Braccio di Merc. Pal. III. d'altra misura

Braccio di Tessitor di Tela

Curante Lu. Poëto

The lines, that represent these measures, are cut pretty deep in the marble; but as they have, consequently, a considerable thickness, it is somewhat difficult to be very exact in taking off their dimensions. Mr. Folkes, however, attempted to do it as near as possible, by setting the point of his compasses in the middle of the cross lines, that are drawn to determine the beginning and end of the measures. The palm of the architects is easier to give than the others, by reason the whole *Canna* is inscribed on the stone: This he, therefore, took off, as he presumes others have generally done, and then divided it into 10 equal parts. After this his chief intention was to the *Roman* foot, as being of greater consequence than the other measures. They all, however, follow as they occur'd to him, in such parts as the *London* foot contains a thousand.

The *Roman* foot 966 +. This is divided upon the stone; first into four palms, and then on the upper part into 12 unciae; and on the lower into 16 deni, according to the inscription.

The *Greek* foot 1006 +. This is also divided like the *Roman*.

The *Canna* of the architects 7325. It is divided into 10 palms; each of which is, therefore, 732 and  $\frac{1}{2}$  of the *English* foot.

The *Staiolo* being five palms and  $\frac{3}{4}$  is 4212.

The *Canna di Mercanti*, divided into eight palms of another measure 6 foot 9 inches  $\frac{21}{4}$ .

The *Braccio di Mercanti*, divided into four palms of another measure, 2 foot 6 inches  $\frac{1}{4}$ .

The *Braccio di Tessitor di Tella*, divided into three parts of a foot, 1 inch and  $\frac{1}{2}$ .

The palm of the architect is assigned by Mr. Greaves 732 of the *English* foot; and the same is given by M. Picart to the *Paris* foot, in the proportion of 494 and  $\frac{1}{3}$  to 720; which, Vol. X. 5

reduced becomes  $732 \frac{1}{4}$  of the English foot, as before, and as it came out from Mr. Folkes's own trial.

The Roman foot is given by M. Picart from this very stone  $653 \frac{1}{4}$  of such parts as the Paris foot contains  $720$ ; that is by reduction  $967 \frac{1}{4}$  of the English foot; and the same by Fabretti, who also measured it upon this stone, is assigned to the palm of the architects, as  $2040$  to  $1545$ ; which reduced upon the former measure of the palm is  $966 \frac{1}{2}$  of the English foot.

These measures come out as near as the nature of the standard can possibly allow; and as it was somewhat fresher in M. Picart's time than it is now, Mr. Folkes would not vary from the proportion the former has assigned, but supposes the Roman foot on this marble was intended to be such a one, as should contain  $967$  parts of the English foot very nearly.

Mr. Greaves had long before assigned the measure of the Roman foot from Cossutius's monument to be  $967$  of the English foot, and preferr'd that measure to the others he had taken from the tomb of Statilius, and the Congius of Vespasian. And Mr. Folkes thinks one can make no doubt, from what has been said, but Cossutius's foot was that intended to be inscribed upon this marble; tho' that monument is itself now lost: At least when Mr. Folkes was at Rome he could get no intelligence of it.

Fabretti in his work concerning aqueducts, where he gives the above mentioned proportion of the palm to the foot, finds fault with Lucas Pætus, as having made a wrong calculation of this proportion in his book *de mensuris & pondibus*. The proportion there given by Pætus, does not, it is true, agree with the foot upon the marble; but yet it is no false calculation, as Fabretti thought; and had he carefully examined Pætus's book, he would have been sensible this is not the foot he there contends for, but the Cossutian foot, which Lucas Pætus in his book disputes against. The truth, therefore, is, that he either alter'd his mind after the writing of that book before the marble was set up; or more probably, that tho' he had the care of having these measures inscribed on the marble, he was directed by a superior authority what measures he was to have engrav'd; and that accordingly he had, as near as possible, the Cossutian foot described for the ancient Roman foot on the stone: And that this was the case, and no mistake about the number, as Fabretti supposes, appears not only from the tenure of his book, where he condemns Cossutius's foot, which

the

here appears, but also from his scheme at the latter end, where he has given what he calls *schema pedis legitimi*, agreeing with his own numbers, viz. 12 inches, whereof  $9\frac{2}{9}$  make the palm of the architects and likewise the measure of the *Colotian* and *Statilian* foot, agreeing with that inscribed on the marble. The *Colotian* is the same monument as the *Cossutian*; so call'd from the person, in whose possession it had formerly been: And he had before said. p. 5. that according to the testimony of *Philander* the *Statilian* agreed with it, tho' Mr. *Greaves*, who measured both these feet very carefully, found some difference between them, stating the *Cossutian*, as above, 967, and the *Statilian* 972. But by *Pætus*'s quoting *Philander*, it is plain, he had not himself measured the latter: And therefore, the foot call'd by him the *Colotian* and *Statilian* is indeed purely the *Colotian*, or *Cossutian* foot; and the same has also occurred to Mr. *Folkes* very nearly from his measure of the height of the *Trajan* pillar, which he finds, from the ground to the top of the cimatum of the capitol, to be 115 foot 10 inches  $\frac{5}{8}$ ; and his height, divided by 120, gives 966 for the quotient very nearly.

As to the Greek foot there seems to be no farther mystery, than that it was intended to be made to the Roman in the proportion collected from *Pliny*, which is, that 625 Roman feet made 600 Greek; by which account the Greek foot should contain 1007 of such parts as the Roman contains 967; and the actual quantity Mr. *Folkes* took off was 1006.

*Some Observations in 1734, at Wittemberg; by M. Weidler.*  
*Phil. Trans. N° 442. p. 266. Translated from the Latin.*

ON the 23d of January, 1734, at 7h. 6m. in the evening there again appeared an exceeding bright *aurora borealis*. Under the north was seen a black arch with a double white *fascia* resting on it, distinguish'd by a black middle tract; the last white arch rose 25 degrees high; in the black tract at times were kindled shining pyramids; from the reflected light near the zenith a similar white arch was produced. At 7h 20' the white tract was diffused a pretty way beyond the west point, and its middle reach'd 50 degrees high; at 7h 35' the shining tract reach'd the *vertex*, discontinu'd clouds here and there tended towards the west, a circumstance which seldom happens in *auroræ boreales*. M. *Weidler* was likewise surprized at some clouds, which stood about the north-east, and moved before the shining tract, beyond which clouds the light

of the *aurora* was distinctly seen : Whence it appears, that the light of the *aurora* reach'd far beyond the clouds. At 7h 38' the shining tract of the *aurora* was descending below the horizon, especially towards the west : This likewise deserves our attention, namely, that tho' this *aurora* was exceeding bright, yet it emitted few shining pyramids. At 8h 30' almost the whole light was set below the horizon ; yet still near the west it was 10 degrees high ; the tract of the black arch, together with the small white impending *fascia*, was still seen at 10 o'clock under the north.

On the 27th of January at 6h. 23' in the evening, there was observ'd a conjunction of the moon and *Venus*. M. *Weidler* found the angle of *Venus* 35' of a degree. *Venus* regard'd the south, and the Moon the north ; at 6h 57' the angle of *Venus* was = 26' ; and in this observation a line drawn thro' *Venus* and both the cusps of the moon was a right one ; afterwards the moon gradually elongated from *Venus*.

On the 17th of February the lowness of the mercury in the barometer was remarkable, being at 28 inches 7 lines, such as M. *Weidler* never before observ'd in these parts ; from thence might be presaged that terrible storm of wind, that seem'd to overturn every thing in its way ; at three in the afternoon great numbers of tiles were blown off the houses ; so that none could walk the streets with safety. In Saxony and other places of Germany this storm did a great deal of damage to the houses, woods, and gardens, pull'd up by the roots an incredible number of trees, broke down old oaks and other trees ; and men in the open fields could not stand on their legs.

On the 19th of March, at 6h 45' in the evening above the N. N. W. there appeared a black arch, lined with a broad white *fascia* ; whose light was brighter towards the west than towards the east, but without such shining pyramids or waves, as usually accompany *auroræ boreales* : There are therefore, some *auroræ boreales*, that only shew a white tract under the north, but without any motion of the light.

On the 29th of March there appeared a remarkable *aurora borealis*, which M. *Weidler* first observ'd at 9 o'clock. The moon was inclining to the west, and only shone through the clouds ; almost the whole heavens were overcast ; and after the clouds divided, there was a shining tract about the north point, from which at times shot shining pyramids, an infallible sign of an *aurora borealis* : He likewise found behind

hind the clouds a shining tract of the *aurora* become an h. The shining pyramids might be seen till 11 o'clock; uncommon sight to observe an *aurora borealis* when the is cloudy, and a wind blows, whereas at other times it monly appears only when the sky is serene and calm.

On the 9th of August as M. *Weidler* was to observe Sa- n, at 11 o'clock, some thin clouds that hung about the N. E. and N. b. E. seemed to be on fire all of a sudden. after emitting a few radiations towards the vertex, the rning ceased, and little clouds were driven by a gentle d towards the east.

From these and other observations it plainly appears, how able a phenomenon the light of the *aurora borealis* is.

OBSERVATIONS made on the Latitude, variation of the Needle and Weather, in a Voyage from London to Hudson's-Bay, Ann. 1735; by Cap. Christopher Middleton. Phil. Trans. No. 442. p. 270.

Month.	Day.	Hour.	Altit.	Altit.	Long.	Va-	Lat.	Latit.	Latit.	Winds.	Remarks.
			of the Ther- mometer.	itude of the Baro- meter.	from Acc- count.	riat of the Con- fess.	obser- vied by El- liot's son's Quad.	obser- vied by Smith's Hadley's son's Quad.	obser- vied by Ward & Smith	S W to S E	
May 31	6 27	0	29. 9	29. 6	0 19.11	W.	0	0	0	S W to S E	Variable, with some rain.
	12 24	9 29	29. 7	29. 7						S E to S W	Variable the first two parts, moderate the latter, fresh gales and a great sea.
June 1	6 29.	7	29. 7	29. 5	23.33	24	.	.	.	S W to S SW	Cloudy and squally with rain.
	12 25	25	29. 5	29. 5						S by E	Frequent showers of rain, with squalls.
	9 25									S W	Uncertain squally weather with a western swell.
	6 26	26	24. 4	24. 4	25.53	25	59.54	59.59			
	2 12 26	26	29.	29.	29.55						
	9 27		29.	29.							
	6 28		29.	28.	8	60	28.	326	59.57	60	
3 12 26	26	26	28.	28.	1						
	9 27		30.	30.	1						
	6 29		30.	28.	8	28.25	60.40	27	60.39	6 . 4 . 1	
15 12 26	26	26	28.	28.	1						
	9 27		30.	28.	9	30.					

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Month.	Day.	Altitude of the Thermo- meter.	Air. of the Baro- meter.	Lat. by Ac- count of the Com- pacts by Act.	Longi- tude from London	Vari- ation of the Com- pacts	Lat. obser'd by Smith's quad.	Lat. obser'd by Hadley's quadra.	Latitu- by a textant of Ward & Smith	Winds.	Remarks
June 13	12 27	6 27	29	29. 7	58.12	45.37	29	58.10	58.13	N W	Much ice in sight. An hard gale, with a great sea.
	9 24	9 27	29	29. 9							
	6 31	6 31	30.	30. 1							
	14 12 26	14 12 26	29.	29. 9	58.12	46.11	30	58.10	58.11	N NW to E S E	Most part hard gales.
	9 29	9 29			30.23						Under main sail and mizen.
	6 29	6 29	30.	30. 5							
	15 12 29	15 12 29	30.	30. 1	9.7	49.49	31			E S E to S E	Saw a large isle of ice. Pleasant weather.
	9 27	9 27			30.						
	6 26	6 26	30.	30. 1							
	16 12 27	16 12 27	30.	30. 1	60.14	55. 3	33			S E b S	Fresh gales, and cloudy with rain.
	9 27	9 27			29. 9						
	6 30	6 30	31								
	17 12 26	17 12 26	29	29. 9	61. 7	59.43	36			S b E to S E b S	Moderate, but hazy, with rain.
	9 26	9 26	29.	29. 9							
	6 31	6 31	29.	29. 9							
	18 12 28	18 12 28	29.	29. 5	61.23	63. 7	39			S E	Hazy, with rain and fogs; several pieces of ice.
	9 27	9 27			29. 7						
	6 27	6 27			29.85						
	19 12 31	19 12 31	30	61.47	63.16	39	61.44	61.49	61.54	S E S S W S b E	Foggy, with calms. Much ice all round Resolution.
	9 30	9 30			29. 9						

June.

June 20 12 27 30 0 61.40 64. 8 39 61.46 61.46 61.46 61.46



Month.	Day.	Alt. of the Thermo- meter.	Alt. of the Baro- meter.	Lat. by Ac- count.	Longi- tude from London Com- pacts.	Vari- ation of the Com- pacts.	Lat. obser- ved by Smith's quadra.	Latitu- dine by a sextant of Ward & Smith	Winds.	Remarks.	
										q , °	q , °
June	28	31	29	29	29	29	29	29	E S E W S W	Molt part foggy, with calms.	
	29	12	27	27	27	27	27	27	E S E W S W	Several large ices of ice; foggy.	
	30	12	26	26	26	26	26	26	E S E W S W	Little winds and calm; heavy ice all round.	
	July	1	12	27	27	27	27	27	E S E W S W	Fast in thick ice, with fogs and rain.	
	2	12	27	27	27	27	27	27	S E to N E	These 24 hours the first and latter parts fresh gales, middle a storm of wind and rain.	
	3	12	28	28	28	28	28	28	N W	Hard gales, with much snow.	
	4	12	29	29	29	29	29	29	N W N b w	Moderate and fair weather, with much ice.	

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July	5	6	29	27	29	8	29	7	29	9	61.39	70.36	40	61.33	61.44	61.43	W b S	W S W to N E N	Working to windward in ice, sometimes in a clear.
6	12	31	6	27	5	29	9	27	5	29	7	61.46	70.54	40	61.54	61.53	Moist part fair and pleasant weather, with much ice.		
7	12	27	6	27	29	4	29	6	29	6	61.55	71.13	40					Foggy weather, close ice all round.	
8	12	26	6	29	29	7	29	7	29	7	29	75	61.46	70.21	40			Moderate, with fogs.	
9	12	25	9	25	5	29	9									Ditto.			
10	12	27	6	29	29	9	29	7	30	61.42	71.40	41		61.38		Ditto.	The first part hazy, the latter clear.		
11	12	27	6	32	5	29	7	30	5	29	6	62.18	75.13	41			N W to S E		
12	12	27	6	31	5	29	7	28	5	29	7	62.31	76	42			S b W	Clear sea, fresh gales and hazy.	
			9	28					9	28		29	75						Foggy weather.
			9	28					9	28		29	75						Ditto.
			9	28					6	31		529.	9	63.	575.28				C c 2

July

## MEMOIRS of the

Altitude of the Thermo- meter.	Air of the Baro- meter.	Lat. from Ac- count.	Longi- tude of the Gom- pas.	Vari- ation by Ac- count.	Lat. obser- v. by Smith's quadra.	Lat. obser- v. by Hadley's quadra.	Lat. obser- v. by Eaton's quadra.	Winds	Remarks.
Hour.									
Day.									
Month.									
July 13	6 30	30. 2	30. 2	0	0	0	0	S to NW	Working in loose ice; hazy, some- times clear.
	12 29	30. 3	31. 15	75			63. 20		
	9 27.	29. 5	29. 9						
	6 31	30	30	0	0				
	14 12	27	30	63. 25	74. 38				
	9 25	25	30						
	6 30	30	29. 9						
	15 12	27	29.	8 63. 20	76				
	9 27	27	29.	8					
	6 27	26	29.	8					
	16 12	26	29.	7 63. 10	77. 20				
	9 26.	26	29.	7					
	6 27.	27.	29.	7					
	17 12	27.	29.	6 63. 10	78. 20	44			
	9 26	26	29.	7					
	6 29	29	29.	6					
	18 12	26	29.	8	78	43			
	9 26	26	29.	8					
	6 25	25	29.	9					
	19 12	24	29. 85	63. 10	78. 20	43			
	9 27	27	29. 80						

Shattered ice; foggy west; wind  
Diggs, W SW five leagues.

July

July 20 | 6 28 | 12 27. | 5 | 29. 85 | 63. 20 | 78. 30 | 41 |

July 21 | 6 29 | 12 27. | 5 | 29. 84 | 63. 20 | 78. 30 | 41 |

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							S W	S S E	Cape Digg's S E b S W
July 20	6.28	27.	5.29.85	29.84	63.20	78.30	4.1		Shattered ice; foggy west: inland Diggs, SW five leagues.
	1.2	9.27.	5.29.98	29.9					
21	6.27.	5.25.	5.29.98	63.10	79.50	4.2			
	1.2	9.24.	29.8						
22	6.27	1.2 25.	29.9	63.13	80.13	4.2			Much large ice; the north end of Manjfield SW b W four miles.
	2.2	1.2 25.	29.9						
	9.23.	5.	30.1						
23	6.26.	1.2 26.	5.30.	63.4	81.10	4.4			North end of Manjfield SW fourteen miles.
	1.2	9.25.	30.						
	6.29.	5.	29.9						
24	1.2 29.	5.26.	29.85	61.34	82.52	4.0			Hazy; some pieces of ice.
	9.26.								
	6.31.		29.82						
25	1.2 28.	2.26.	29.82	61.15	83.56	3.8			Much ice and rain.
	9.26.		29.83						
	6.32.		29.7						
26	1.2 29.	9.29.	5.29.	60.45	84.23				Thick foggy weather, with showers of rain.
	9.29.		9						
	6.30.		5.29.						
27	1.2 26.	9.26.	29.9	59.39	84.11	3.0	59.36	59.34	Steering ice, with wet fog.
	9.26.		30.1						

July

Month.	Day.	Hour	Alt. of the Thermo- meter.	Lat. of the Baro- meter.	Longi- tude from Ac- couat.	Vari- ation of the Com- pass.	Lat. obser'd by El- liot's quadra.	Lat. obser'd by a sextant of Ward & Smith.	Winds.	Latitu- de by a sextant of Ward & Smith.	Remarks
July	28	6 28	30. 1	158. 9	82.44	28	58. 5	58. 2	N bW	Baker's Dozens S b W four leagues. Fair weather.	
	12 26	30. 1	158. 9	30. 1	—	—	—	—	W b S	Moderate, with fogs, rain and ice.	
	9 26	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	W b W	Fresh Gales. A great sea from the southward.	
	29	6 28	30.	56.46	82.45	26	—	—	—	Thunder and rain. North-Bear S W by W five miles.	
	12 26	30.	29.95	—	—	—	—	—	NE	—	
	9 25	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
	30	6 27.	5 29.85	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
	12 25.	5 29.9	55.51	82.39	25	—	—	—	—	—	
	9 23	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
	31	6 26	—	29. 9	—	—	—	—	—	—	
	12 25.	5 29. 5	54.44	82.47	24	—	—	—	—	—	
	9 24	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
	Aug 1	6 26	—	30	—	—	—	—	NE	Moderate and fair weather.	
	12 25.	5 29.98	53. 3	81	22	—	—	—	—	—	
	9 23	—	29.85	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
	3 12 26	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	South to North	The first part moderate, the latter hard gales, with thunder and lightning in with the W' main.	
	3 12 26	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Arrived in Mojeriver road.	

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Aug.	6 12 9	W	West	W N	W b N	W and	Winds.	
							24	22
Sept.	12 27	29.85	55.36	00	24	Moderate and fair.		
	9 29	29.85	from					
	12 27	30.5	53.50	Bear.	26			
	9 26	30.8			1.16			
	9 26	29.8						
	12 26	30.4	56.6					
	9 23	31.5						
	9 26	29.8						
	12 26	30.6	58.6					
	9 23	31.						
	9 33	29.8						
	12 33	29.85	58.28					
	9 34	30.						
	9 33	30.1						
	12 32.	530.2	58.40					
	9 32	30.2						
	9 27	29.9						
	12 27	29.8	60.45					
	9 26	30.1						

Sept.

Ditto gales and snow

Moderate gales and hazy, with small rain.

Ditto.

The first part moderate, middle and latter very hard gales, with squalls of rain.

Ditto.

Fresh gales and squally, with a head Sea.

Ditto, hard gales and squalls.

E N E

North

to East

N E E

South

to West

E N E

North

to South

W N

South

to North

# MEMOIRS of the

Much snow, with thick weather.

Vol. X 6

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Altit. of the Thermome- ter.	Lat. itude of the Baro- rometer.	Longt. ude of the Baro- rometer.	Lat. itude from Land.	Varia- tion of the Com- pass.	Lat. itude obser- v'd by Smith's Acc.	Lat. itude obser- v'd by Hadley's Acc.	Lat. itude obser- v'd by Elton's Acc.	Lat. itude obser- v'd by Ward & Smith	Winds.		Remarks.
									Lat. itude obser- v'd by Elton's Acc.	Lat. itude obser- v'd by Ward & Smith	
Sep. 23	9 29	29.65	29.5	55.52	36.50	25	55.44	55.47	N E	E	Hard gales with rain and fogs
12 26	5	29.5	29.7	—	—	—	—	—	N b	W	
9 26	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—			
9 31	29.	29.	29.	8	31.21	24	55. 1	55. 4	N N	W	Fresh gales and rain
12 27	39.	39.	39.	8	—	—	—	—	N W	b N	
9 26	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	S	W	
24	9 27	27.	27.	5	30	53.43	25.59	23	b	W	Hard gales, with squalls and small rain.
14 26	30	30	30	2	—	—	—	—	b	W	
9 26	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	S	W	
25	9 21	30.	30.	2	—	—	—	—	b	W	
12 19	30	30	30	2	52.38	22.23	22	—	b	W	First part hard gales, middle and latter moderate and hazy.
9 20	—	—	—	—	30.	1	—	—	S	W	
26	9 21	30	30	1	—	—	—	—	b	S	
12 20	5	31	30	1	52.27	20.15	21	—	S	W	
27	9 24	30	30	1	—	—	—	—	South	to	Fresh gales and much rain; hazy weather
Day.	Month.	9 25	30.	2	30.25	50.30	16.33	20	51	NE	
28	12 25	30.	2	30.2	—	—	—	51	N E	Fresh gales, and much rain; hazy weather	
9 24	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	N E	to	
29	9 23	30.	3	30.3	—	—	—	—	N b	W	Fresh gales and hazy, with some rain in the first two parts, the latter moderate
12 23	30.	3	30.	2	50.20	13. 7	19	50.24	50.25	Sept.	
9 24	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—			

Moderate and fair : winds variable.

Explan-

Dd. 2

*Explanation of the Tables.*

The first column contains the month; the second, the day of the month; the third, the hour of the day, beginning at six in the morning to twelve at noon, and nine at night; the fourth column contains observations of the thermometer; the fifth, the height of the mercury in the barometer, where the first number is the height in inches, the second and third numbers mark the tenths and hundredth parts of an inch; the sixth column is the latitude the ship is in by account, every day at noon; the seventh column is the longitude the ship is in every day at noon, by account, from the meridian of London, except where otherwise expressed; the eighth column is the variation of the needle; and the next four columns are the latitudes observed at noon by four several new instruments; the first is Mr. Smith's prismatic quadrant; the second, Mr. Hadley's; the third by Mr. John Elton; and the fourth by Mr. Caleb Smith and Mr. William Ward; the next column is the wind for the most part of the 24 hours.

The thermometer Capt. Middleton made use of in the voyage was made by Mr. John Patrick, as also the barometer: In his thermometer Mr. Patrick places 0 at the top, supposing it to be the heat under the line; and so the figures increase downwards with the increase of cold: Temperate is placed at 25.

Mr. Smith's prismatic quadrant Capt. Middleton finds to be of very great use at sea, particularly for the stars, as he experienced several times in his voyage to Hudson's-Bay, in the worst of weather, when one can but see the horizon: And his other is of great use, in tolerable smooth water, in foggy and hazy weather, when there is no horizon to be seen, yet have the benefit of the sun.

*An experiment to shew that some damps in mines may be occasioned only by the burning of candles under ground, without the addition of any noxious vapour, even when the bottom of the pit has a communication with the external air, unless the external air be forcibly driven in at the said communication or pipe; by Dr. Desaguliers. Phil. Transl. N°. 442. p. 281.*

*Exp. 1.* **I**N a cylindric glass receiver, open at both ends whose lower end is plunged in water, and upper end covered with a plate with a hole of near an inch bore,

candle

candle of six in the pound will not burn quite the time of one minute before it goes out.

*Exp. 2.* A candle will burn almost as long when the receiver is quite covered.

*Exp. 3.* The receiver having the hole of the plate open, and a pipe at bottom, communicating with the external air, will burn but a little longer than in the first experiment; and if you blow in at the pipe with your mouth, it will go out rather sooner.

*Exp. 4.* Blow in at the pipe with bellows, and the candle will burn as long as you will.

*A chemical experiment (serving to illustrate the phænomenon of the inflammable air, shewn to the Royal Society by Sir James Lowther) by Mr. John Maud. Phil. Trans. N°. 442. p. 282.*

SIR James Lowther having made an experiment on some air which he collected out of a coal mine, and brought in bladders close tied by sea to town: Vid. *Phil. Trans.* N°. 429. p. 109. The effect of which was, that the air, being pressed out of the bladder thro' the small orifice of a tobacco-pipe, would catch fire from a lighted candle, and burn like an inflammable spirit, till it was all consumed.

Upon considering that this was only owing to a great quantity of sulphurous fumes floating in that air, Mr. Maud was induced to make an essay, by an artificial mixture, to produce the like effect. It is well known to every one conversant in chemical matters, that most metals emit great quantities of sulphurous fumes, during the effervescence they undergo in their solutions in their respective *menstrua*: Iron, whilst dissolving in oil of vitriol, emits a great quantity of these fumes, which are very inflammable, and not easily to be condensed. These fumes Mr. Maud collected into a bladder with the desired success, and having produced before the *Royal Society* two bladders of this factitious air, at the same time that Sir James Lowther made trial of his, they both exhibited the same phænomena. A more particular account of the preparation made use of is as follows.

Mr. Maud took two drachms of oil of vitriol, and mixed it with eight drachms of common water, which he put into a glass with a flat bottom, about ten inches wide, and three inches deep, with a long neck; to this he added two drachms of iron filings: There instantly arose a great heat, with a violent ebullition, and the iron was wrought upon very fast, with a copious exha-

exhalation of fumes. To the end of the neck of the glass he luted a bladder void of air, the neck of the bladder being fastened to a tobacco-pipe; the fumes arising from the dissolving metal soon puffed up the bladder to its full extent, and after that another bladder in the same manner; and thus you may get as many bladders full as you can, whilst the effervescence lasts. Two of these bladders were tried before the Society, and exhibited a flame very like that of Sir James Lowther's in the smell, tho' somewhat different in the colour of the flame. After Mr. Maud had pressed part of the air out of the bladder, by drawing back the hand, the flame was sucked into the bladder, and all at once set on fire what inflammable air remained; which went off like a gun, with a great explosion.

What is worthy of notice in this experiment is, that all the air, which filled the bladders, was generated *de novo*, as it were, out of the mixture, or else recovered from the body of the metal in an unelastic state.

This experiment will easily explain a very probable cause of earthquakes, vulcano's, and all fiery eruptions from the earth; For, nothing more is requisite than iron, a vitriolic acid and water: Now iron is generally found accompanied with sulphur; and common sulphur may be analysed into an inflammable oil, and an acid liquor like oil of vitriol. This acid, therefore, in the bowels of the earth, by being diluted with a little water, surrounds the iron, and works upon it in the same manner as described above; an effervescence and intestine heat arises; the air, which comes from the mixture, is rarified, and becomes very elastic; its impetus, by how much the more compressed by the incumbent weight of earth, is increased even to an unlimited degree; and at length like gunpowder will remove all obstacles, and exhibit to the spectators above ground the terrible phenomena of earthquakes and eruptions. Sometimes these inflammable fumes, if very much heated, will, as soon as they come to the open air, catch fire; and so produce those fiery eruptions, of which there are so many instances in the world.

*An account of the storm, Jan. 8. 1734-5; by Mr. Forth. Phil. Trans. N°. 442. p. 285.*

AT Darlington, 14 miles south from Durham, Lat.  $54^{\circ} 46'$ , the evening before the 8th of January, 1734-5, Mr. Forth's barometer stood at 29 inches, but had been gradually falling for two days. The wind was then south-west, and of

the second degree of strength ; and increased towards midnight a degree more. Most of the day there was snow or sleet.

The 8th in the morning he found his glass fallen to 28 inches, 8 parts, and at four o'clock p. m. down to 28 inches, 5 parts ; and by 10 in the evening risen again to 28 inches, 45 parts. All this while the wind was in the north-east, with only a moderate gale, tho' attended all day with snow, which at night was 2 inches and  $\frac{1}{4}$  deep ; and about eight o'clock it began to freeze. As the wind in the southern parts was all that while in the opposite quarter, Mr. Forth would have expected an accumulation of the air, and as a consequence thereof, the rising of the barometer at the time of its falling the lowest. Had the storm happened the night before, when in the northern parts the wind was in the same direction, and had afterwards fallen, he would then have imputed the fall to the quick return of the current of air.

In the December of the preceding year Mr. Forth finds by his register that there fell through his funnel, whose area is just 100 inches, 13 lb. 85 parts ; yet their almost constant intermitting frosts kept it from going off in any considerable quantity at a time.

### Inches.

Greatest height of the barometer,	30 10
Least ditto,	29 13

Of the bones of animals changed to a red colour by aliment only; by Mr. John Belchier. Phil. Trans. N°. 442. p. 287.

THAT the circulation of the blood is carried on through the bones, is evident from several phenomena observable in surgery : But that it is universally and intimately distributed thro' the most solid and compact substance of the bones (tho' hitherto doubted by some) will appear undeniably from the instances here produced ; which are the bones of several hogs, of a different breed, changed to a deep red colour, merely by aliment. And what makes this still more surprising is, that neither the fleshy nor cartilaginous parts suffer the least alteration in colour or taste.

Their diet was bran, after boiling it in a copper with printed calicoes, in order to clean them from a dirty red colour occasioned by an infusion of madder root, made use of to fix the colours printed on the cloth : Some of these colours are made with preparations from iron, others with a mixture from alum and sugar of lead. The parts printed with these

preparation of iron produce black and purple ; those printed with the mixture of alum, red of different degrees, according to the strength of the mixture. The bran after absorbing the red colour discharged from the cloth was mix'd with the common food of the hogs, and produced this effect on their bones.

Upon examining these bones, he observ'd in general the solid parts to be most tinged, and the teeth in particular, except the enamell'd part, which is of a different substance : And upon sawing them through, he found the internal parts equally tinged, except at the ends of the bones, where the substance was more spongy : And in order to discharge the colour, he macerated them in water for many weeks together ; boil'd them often, and steep'd them in spirits, but all prov'd ineffectual : nor was the least tincture given to any of the liquids, in which he made experiments.

*An Observation of white Liquor like Milk, that appeared instead of Serum, separated from the Blood, after it had stood for some time ; by Dr. Alexander Stuart. Phil. Trans. N° 442. p. 289.*

ONE John Wicks, carver, in -Bromley-street, London, about 40 years of age, was ill about three weeks by the loss of appetite, and by indigestion, and at last a pain and distention of his stomach, with a low degree of an inflammatory fever ; his tongue was dry, rough, and of a rusty brown colour in the middle, with a white soft list on each side ; his urine very high coloured, with a large quantity of a slimy pink-colour'd sediment ; his stools very yellow, and loose.

After taking away eight ounces of blood, instead of serum there appeared nothing above the coagulum, but a white liquor like milk, which was pour'd off to the quantity of four ounces, or thereabouts. At first there was no smell perceptible, but in six days it began to have the smell of rotten eggs. For three weeks longer it stood in a room, where there was fire for some hours of the day, and in that time it neither alter'd its consistence nor smell.

The patient had eat very little for a week before the Dr. first saw him, and only a little of a calf's foot stew'd the night before for supper, and no breakfast that day. He was addicted to drinking of strong pale-malt liquor every day he was in health.

If this be chyle, it is a substance very different from milk, which is apt to turn sour and thick by keeping, and never contracts the putrid smell of rotten eggs, as this did. Whether it be not chyle turn'd putrid and near to purulency, by long circulation in the blood-vessels, but not converted into blood, through some defect in the sanguification, is a question the Dr. doubts cannot be decided without more observations and experience.

The coagulum of the blood was cover'd with a fizy pellicle, about the thickness of a shilling : The red part was of a rumous, tender, incoherent consistence.

Tho' the patient was much better in a week's time, the Dr. order'd five ounces of blood to be taken away, to see what change had happen'd ; and he found the coagulum cover'd with a fizy pellicle to the thickness of half a crown, the red part of a due consistence, the serum clear and without any chyle.

The urine became clear, and he recover'd in about two weeks after the Dr. had first seen him.

An account of what was observ'd upon opening the body of a person who had taken internally several ounces of crude mercury ; and of a plumb-stone, lodged in the coats of the rectum ; by Dr. Madden. Phil. Trans. N° 442. p. 291.

THE internal use of crude mercury is of late become so frequent, that Dr. *Madden* believes it might hereafter produce some great benefit to mankind, if a careful collection were made of all the extraordinary cases, relating to the good or bad effects of this practice.

In the following case there are circumstances which are not owing to the internal use of mercury ; yet there are many others which were undoubtedly occasioned by it.

Dr. *Madden*, with Dr. *Robinson*, and Mr. *Nichols*, surgeon-general, was present at opening the body of a gentleman of estate at *Dublin*, who for several years found great difficulty going to stool. This disorder increased upon him towards the latter end of his life, and he was seized with a violent temper, of which Dr. *Madden* could give no description, having never attended him.

In order to procure a passage downward, (which the Dr. supposes was a principal complaint) the patient took, by the advice of a physician, several ounces of crude mercury, at different times, without any relief, and at length he died.

Upon opening the abdomen, which was very much distended, there burst forth a great quantity of wind, tho' the gut and stomach were not wounded.

The stomach was empty; and upon opening it the inner coat was found very much inflam'd from one end to the other. In several places of the small guts were observ'd some scatter'd grains of crude mercury, and along with them was generally found a black gritty powder, very like *Aethiops*, mineral which, without doubt, was the mercury chang'd into that consistence.

The *colon* was distended at its origin, to twice the thickness of an ordinary man's arm about the shoulder. This extraordinary thickness extended itself about the length 10 or 12 inches; from hence it gradually decreas'd; where it was attached to the stomach, it had not above  $\frac{1}{2}$  that size.

It was much inflam'd at its origin, and contain'd at least four quarts of liquid excrement, in which was observ'd crude mercury, and likewise some of the black powder mention'd above.

The *colon*, where it parted from the stomach, and diverged towards the left kidney, adher'd about the space of three inches to the *omentum*; and upon separating it, there was found an abscess and inflammation, which had communicated itself to those parts of the *ileum*, that were contiguous to the *colon*.

In this place the *colon* had a perforation about  $\frac{3}{4}$  of an inch in diameter, and four smaller perforations, about the size of a goosequill, thro' which some excrement had passed into the abdomen.

The coats of the *colon*, as it approached the *rectum*, began to grow scirrrous, about the space of six inches, and its capacity became gradually smaller.

The valves of the *colon* about this place were of a red colour, and more scirrrous than the other parts of the intestine. The coats of the *colon*, where it was continued into the *rectum*, were at least  $\frac{1}{2}$  an inch thick, and its capacity above  $\frac{1}{4}$  of the natural size.

Upon cutting the gut horizontally hereabouts, there was receiv'd a body which stopped the passage, and seemed to touch almost of a cartilaginous consistence. Having open'd the gut lengthwise, it was found to be no other than 2 of the

*cula conniventes coli*, grown scirrhous, and protruded downwards into the *rectum*.

There was also found a small plumb-stone in this place, quite buried in the *tunica villosa*, making itself a bed between the coats of the *rectum*: It had likewise formed a small *abscess*, which discharged itself into the cavity of the *pelvis*, but had no communication with the cavity of the *rectum*.

A solar Eclipse observed at Rome May 3, 1734. N. S. by the Abbé de Rivillas, and M. Celsius. Phil. Trans. N° 442. p. 294. Translated from the Latin.

THE Abbé de Rivillas and M. Celsius observ'd this solar eclipse at Rome in the palace of Cardinal *De-via*; they took all possible care to determine the true time, both from the appulse of the solar species to the meridian line, and from equal altitudes of the sun, taken several times the same day, and on the day preceeding the eclipse. They moreover observ'd the eclipse with 2 very good telescopes, about 6 Roman palms in length: For, the too great altitude of the sun, being almost in the meridian, and some other inconveniencies hinder'd their making use of longer ones: With the one, which transmitted the solar image directly to the eye, armed with a smoak'd glas, they principally observed the beginning and end of the eclipse; and with the other, which exhibited, as usual, the solar species, the intermediate phases. The clouds had like to have cut off all hopes of being able to make such observations; as at sun rise they tinged the southern parts of the horizon, and afterwards almost the whole heavens. But as thinner clouds succeeded thicker ones, tho' they deprived them of the first contact of the planets, and exhibited the first phases somewhat uncertain, and the species, about the end of the eclipse, indented, as it were; yet they allowed accurately to determine the rest of the observations.

Obser- vations	True time			quantity of obscuration Dig.
	p.	m.	h.	
1	22	22	35	- - - - -
2		27	1	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
3		34	0	1
4		42	6	1 $\frac{1}{2}$
5	23	0	52	2
6		3	16	2 - - - - -
7		10	31	2
8		28	16	1 $\frac{1}{2}$
9		45	11	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
10		52	1	0 - - - - -

The beginning seem'd thro' a cloud to have preceded a little.

Or a little more; and the greatest obscuration was thought to be at hand.

The end.

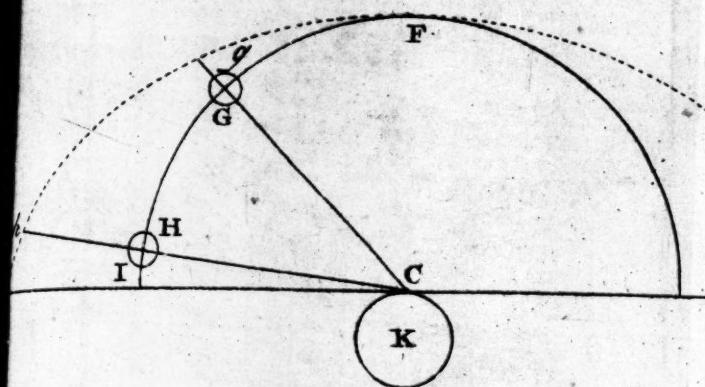
From the 4th and 8th observations we may gather that the greatest obscuration happen'd about 23 h. 5 min.

*The Description and Manner of using an Instrument for measuring the Degrees of the expansion of Metals by Heat; by Mr. John Ellicott. Phil. Trans. N° 443. p. 297.*

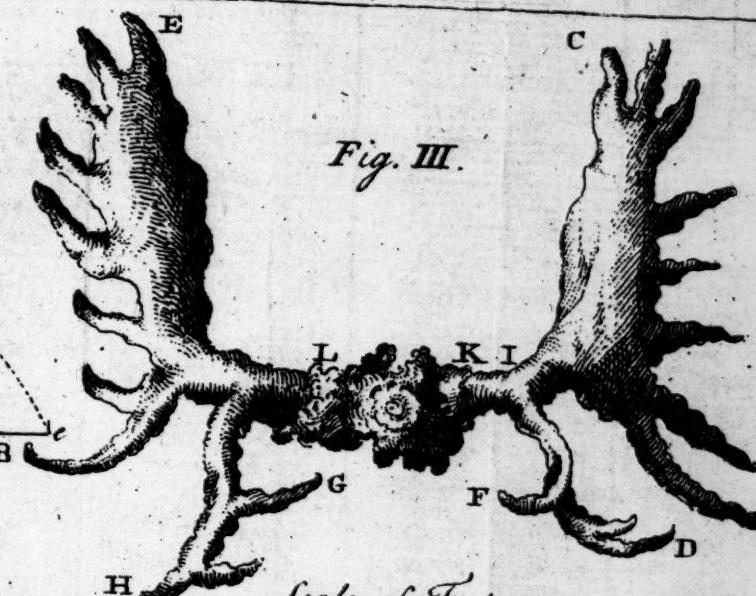
A (Fig 1. Plate VIII.) represents a flat plate of brass, which, for farther strength, is screw'd down to a thick piece of mahogany: Upon this plate are screw'd 3 pieces of brass, two of which, markt B B, serve as supports for the flat iron bar C; and which, on account of its use, Mr. Ellicott calls the *standard bar*. The upper part of the 3d piece of brass is a circle about 3 inches diameter, divided into 360 equal parts or degrees: Within this circle is a moveable plate, divided likewise into 360 parts, and a small steel index: The brass circle in the Fig. is marked D and the moveable plate d. Upon the standard bar is laid the bar of metal, E, on which the experiment is to be made. F represents a lever 2 inches and  $\frac{1}{2}$  in length, fasten'd to an axis, which turns in 2 pieces of brass screw'd to one of the supports, markt B: To the end of this lever is fasten'd a chain, or filk line, which, after being wound round a small cylinder, to which the index in the brass circle D is fasten'd, passes over a pulley, and has a weight hung to the end of it: Upon the axis, to which the lever is fixt, is a pulley,  $\frac{1}{4}$  of an inch in diameter, to which a piece of watch chain is fasten'd; the other end of this chain is hook'd to a strong spring, markt G, which spring bears against one end of the metal E. H represents a lever exactly of the same form and dimensions with the former; but the chain fasten'd to the pulley

PLATE.VIII.

*Fig. V.*

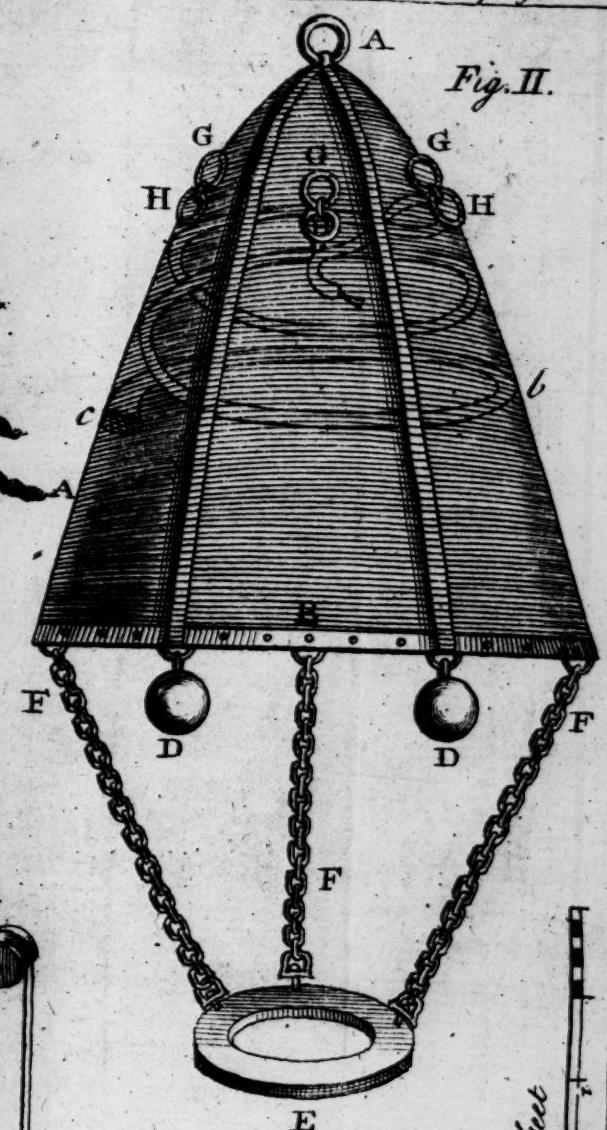


*Fig. III.*

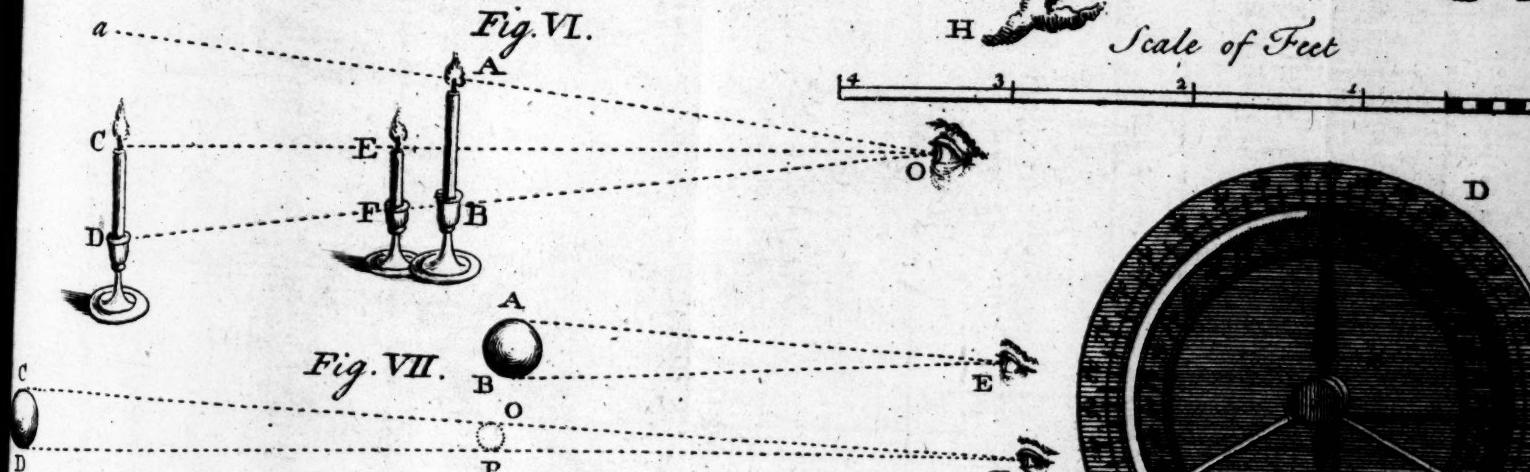


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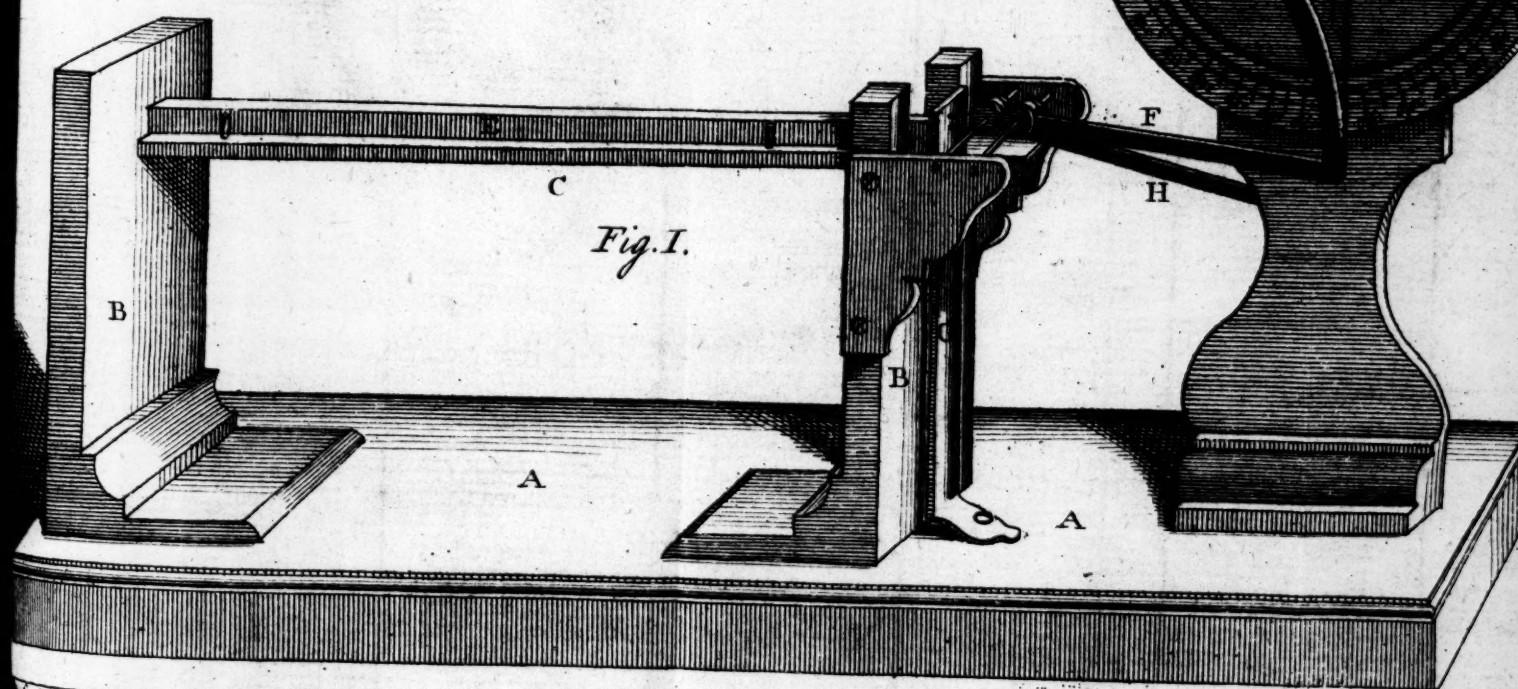
*Fig. II.*



*Fig. VI.*



*Fig. VII.*



*Fig. I.*



Scale of 4 English Feet

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PLATE. IX.

l.X.

Fig. XVI.

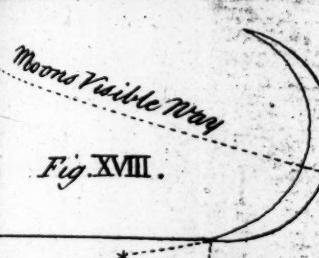
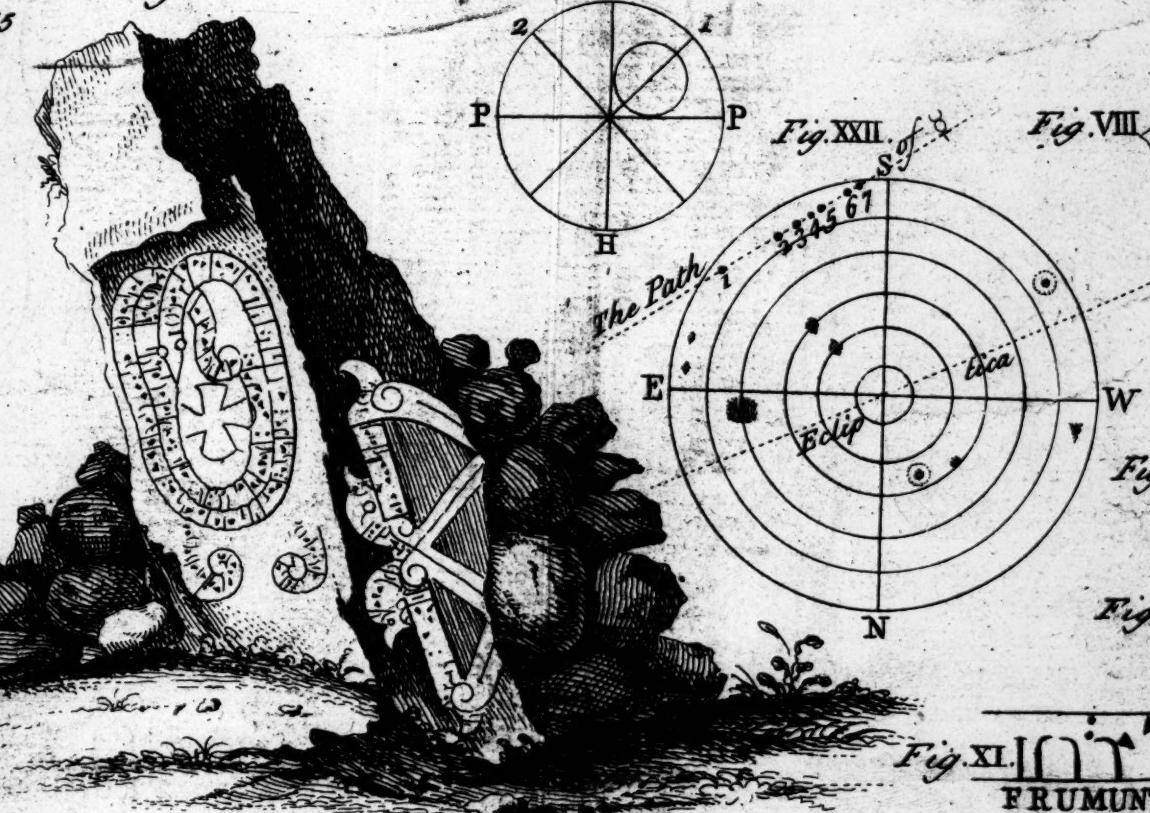
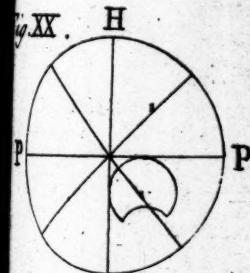


Fig. XVII.



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Fig. XI.



Fig. XII.



Fig. XIII.



Fig. XIV.

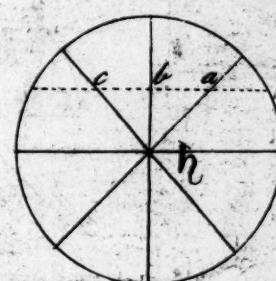
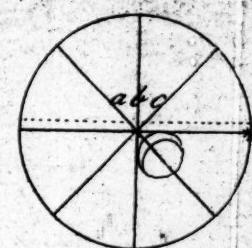


Fig. XV.

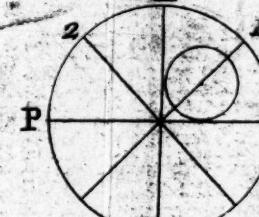
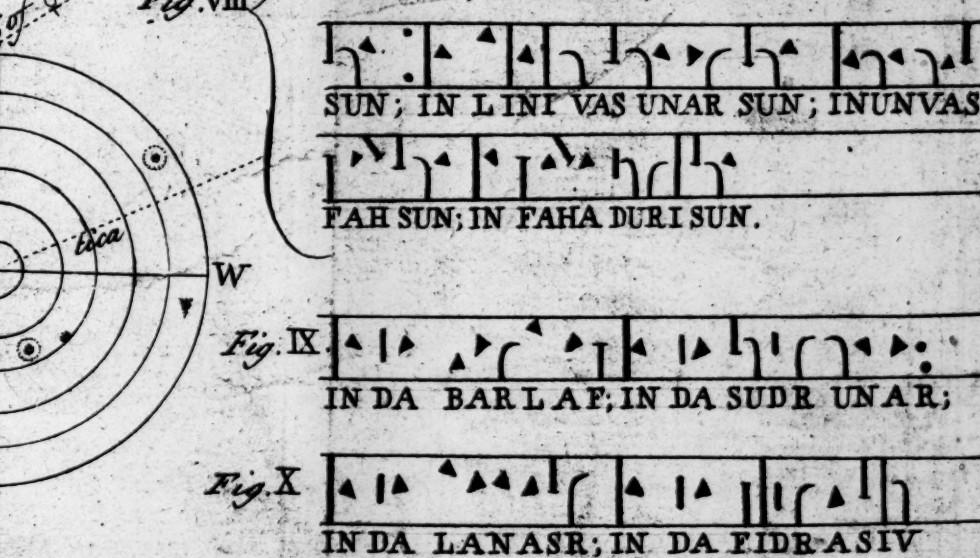


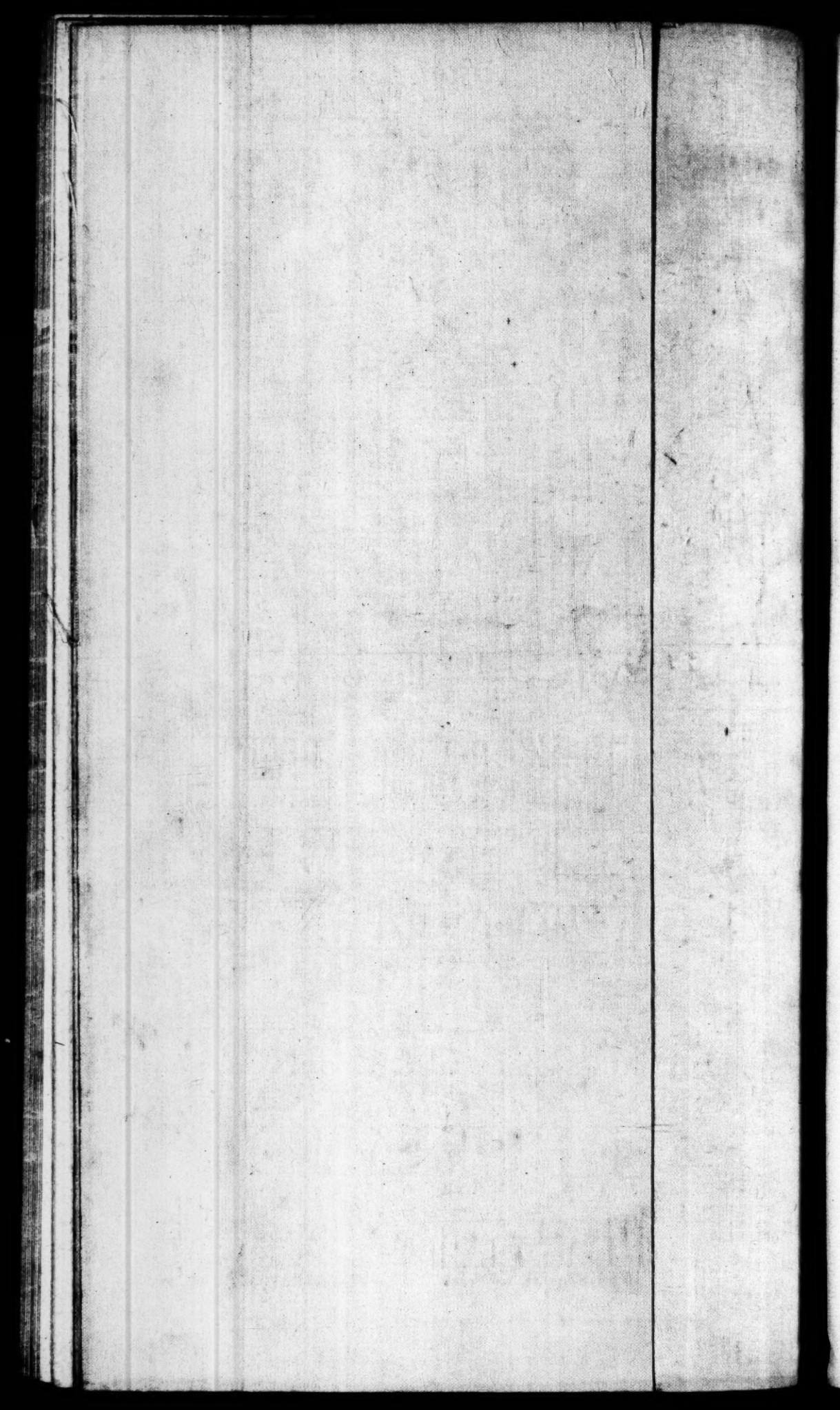
Fig. XVI.



Fig. XVII.



Hulett Sculp.



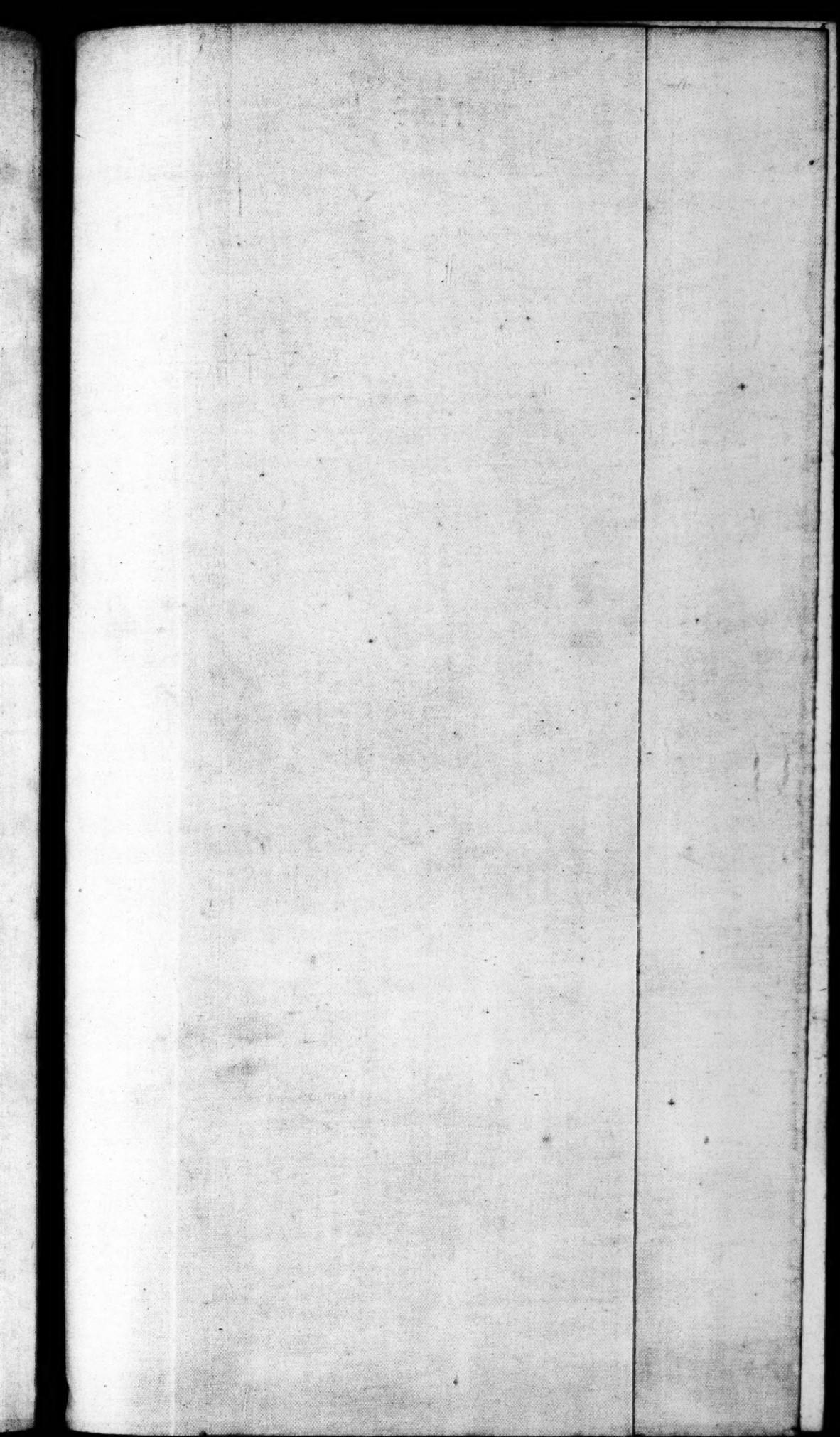


PLATE. X.

A Scale of 2 Inches or  $\frac{1}{5}$  Roman Feet to Fig. III.

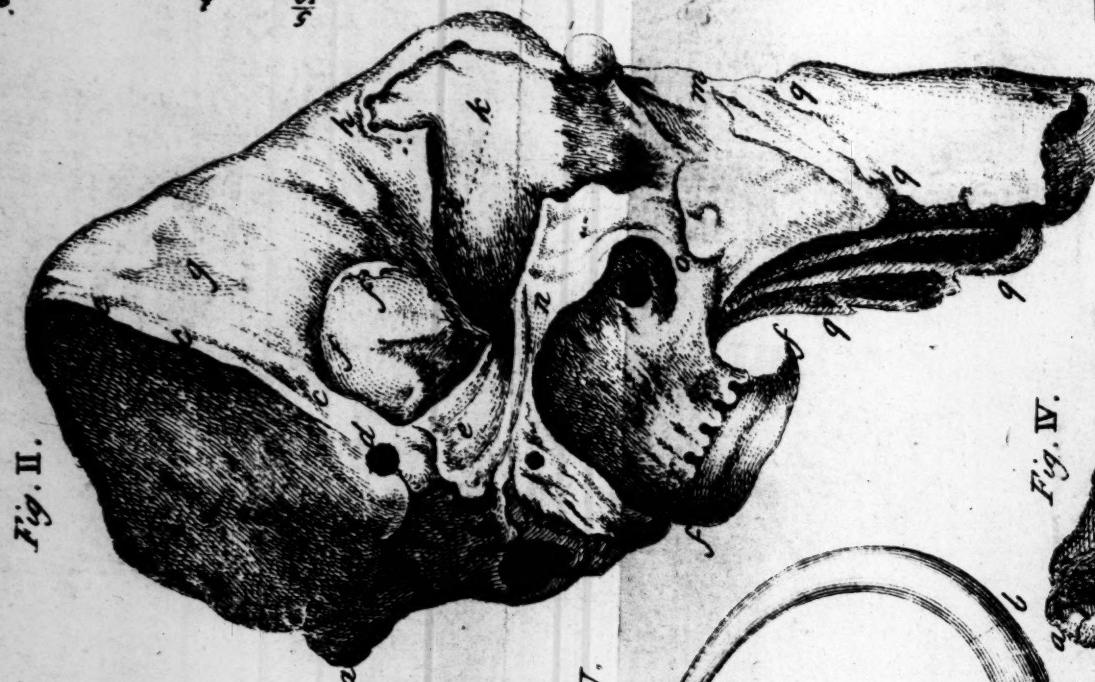


Fig. II.

A Scale of 3 Feet to Fig. V.

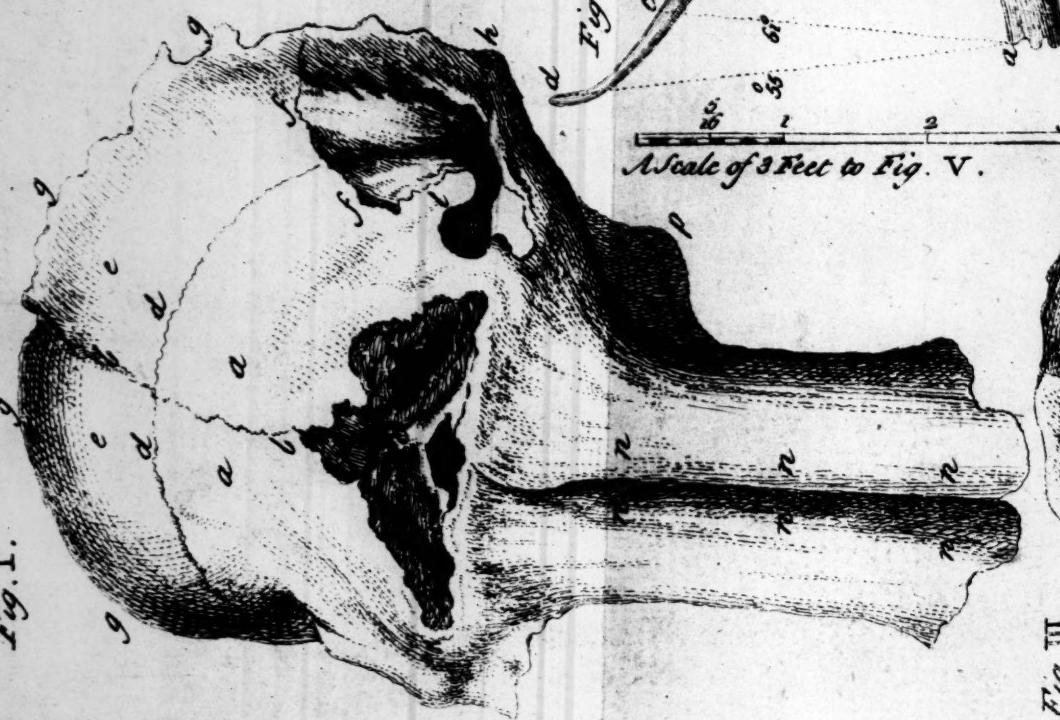
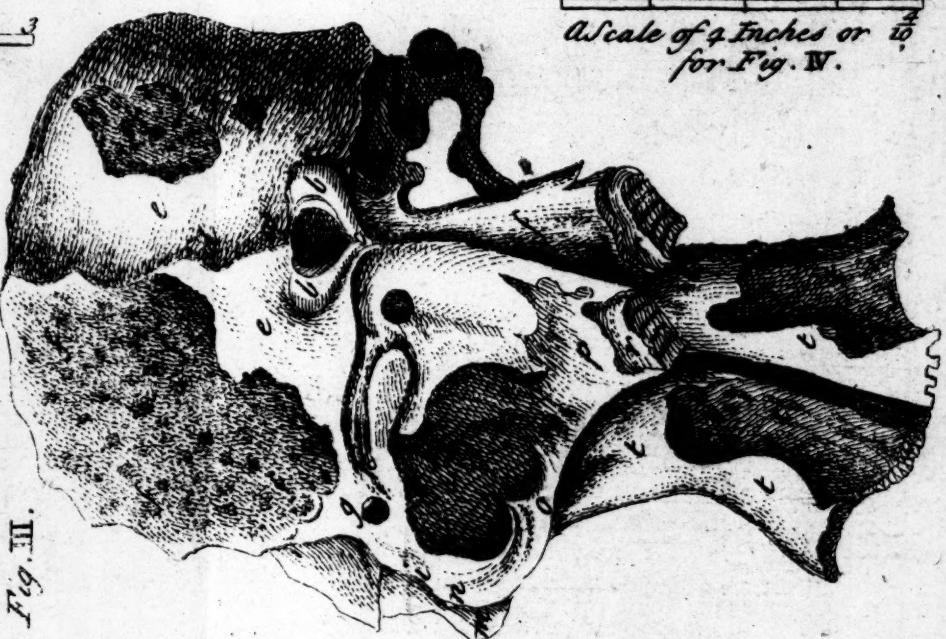


Fig. I.

Fig. III.



A Scale of 4 Inches or  $\frac{1}{6}$  Roman Feet to Fig. IV.

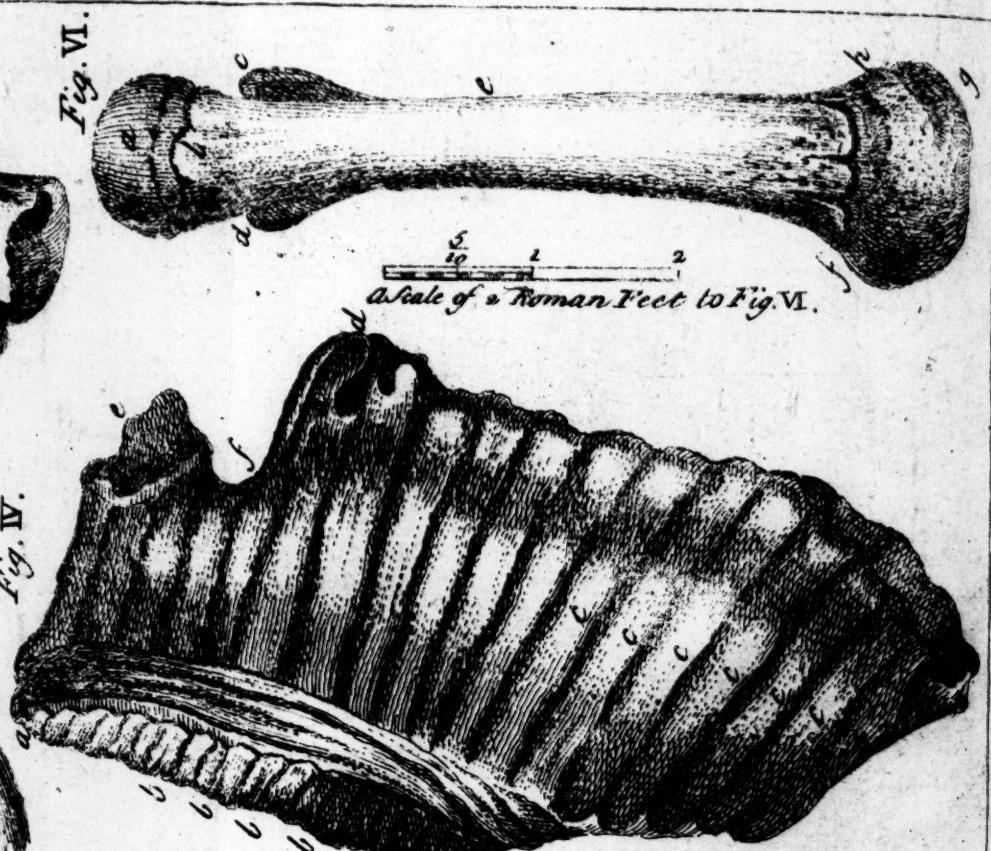


Fig. VI.

A Scale of 2 Roman Feet to Fig. VI.

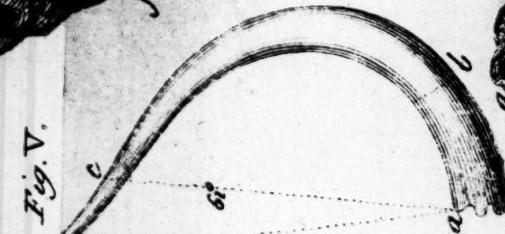


Fig. V.

its axis is hook'd to the standard bar. *N. 2.* The chain to the former pulley being fasten'd to a spring, and not directly to the metal E, is only for the more easy shifting the metals. The line fasten'd to the end of this lever, after being wound round a cylinder, to which the moveable plate is fixt, passes over a small pulley, and has a weight hung to the end of it; or rather the same line passing under a pulley, to which the weight is hung, has its other end fasten'd to the lever F: Thus one weight serves for both levers, as in the Fig.

From this description it is plain, that whenever the bar E is lengthen'd, it gives liberty to the weight to draw the lever F upwards by its action on the spring G; and the index will at the same time, by means of the silk line, be carried forwards in the circle; and as the bar shortens, it will return back again; the same motion will be communicated to the standard bar.

Lengthening the bar the  $\frac{1}{10}$  of an inch will carry the index once round the brass circle, which is divided into 360 degrees; if, therefore, the metal lengthen the 7200th part of an inch, the index will move 1 degree.

To make an experiment with this instrument, lay a bar of any kind of metal, as E, on the standard-bar; then heat the standard bar to any degree of heat with a lamp, and mark the degree of its expansion as markt by the moveable plate: Observe also the degree of expansion of the metal E, by the heat communicated to it from the standard bar, as markt on the brass circle by the index: Let the instrument stand till the whole is thoroughly cold; then removing the bar E, lay a bar of any other metal in its place, and heat the standard-bar to the same degree of heat as before, which is seen by the moveable plates marking the same degree of expansion: Then the index will shew the degree of expansion of the second metal, as it did of the first; and by this means the degrees of expansion of different metals by the same degree of heat may be exactly estimated.

A farther Account of the Bones of Animals being made red by aliment only; by Mr. John Belchier. Phil. Trans. N° 443. p. 299.

In the account, *Phil. Trans.* N° 442. p. 286, which Mr. Belchier gave of the red bones of the hogs, he mentioned, that the colour was occasion'd by mixing with their common food, bran made use of to clean printed callicoes; the colours of which were made, some from preparations of iron, as the blacks

blacks and purples; others, from preparations of alum and *Sachar. Saturni*, which produce the red colours; and that madder root was made use of to fix these colours on the cloth. To which of these preparations the colours was owing, he could not then determine. Some were of opinion, that it was entirely owing to the preparations of iron; others, that it was the whole blended together: And in order to clear up this point, Mr. *Belchier* determined to make some experiments. The first he made was upon a cock, by mixing some of the madder-root with fig-dust, on which they feed. — The cock dying within 16 days after his first feeding on the madder, he dissected him, and examining the bones, to his great surprise, he found them all over of a red colour: So that from this experiment it appears, that the madder alone causes this alteration.

*Of the Viper-catchers, and their remedy for the Bite of a Viper; by Dr. Burton.* Phil. Trans. N° 443. p. 312.

**WILLIAM Oliver** and his wife call'd upon Dr. *Burton* with their vipers, and either of them offer'd to be bit by any viper, and to suffer their arm to swell for some time; and then by the external application of a common cheap remedy, in a few hours to remove all the symptoms. Accordingly the experiment was made in the town-hall at *Windsor*, before Dr. *Derham*, Dr. *Waterland*, and before the physicians, apothecaries and surgeons of the town and several other Gentlemen in the neighbourhood. The man was bit in the upper joint of the thumb, and higher up on the same arm, by 2 different fresh vipers: His thumb, hand and arm soon after swell'd much, and all the usual symptoms of a viper bite ensued; he applied the remedy (sallad oil) with the promis'd success.

*An Account of Experiments made June 1, 1734. before several Members of the Royal Society and others, on a Man, who suffer'd himself to be bit by a Viper, or common Adder; and on other Animals likewise bitten by the same and other Vipers: With some Remarks on the Cure of the Bite of a mad Dog; by Dr. Mortimer.* Phil. Trans. N° 443. p. 313.

**WILLIAM Oliver** and his wife, from *Bath*, who follow the business of catching and selling vipers, offer'd themselves to be bit by any viper that should be procur'd, trusting to the virtue of a remedy they had lighted on by chance in trying variety of things, when the woman was once accidentally bitten, and the usual known medicines, even the oil of vipers, had

had no effect in asswaging her pain, especially that of her breast on the same side with the hand in which she had receiv'd the wound. This remedy which is only common oil of olives, and from its use with fallad, commonly known by the name of fallad-oil, recommends itself not only from its efficacy; but likewise on account of its being readily come at, when accidents happen.

On the 1st of June, 1734, in the presence of a great number of persons, the said *William Oliver* was bit by an old black viper, or adder, brought by one of the company, upon the wrist and joint of the thumb of the right hand; so that drops of blood came from the wounds. He said that he immediately felt a violent pain and shooting from the wounds, both to the top of his thumb and up his arm, even before the viper was loosen'd from his hand: Soon after he felt a pain, like that of burning, trickle up his arm; in a few minutes his eyes began to look red and fiery, and to water much: In less than  $\frac{1}{2}$  an hour he perceiv'd the venom seize his heart with a pricking pain, which was attended with faintness and shortness of breath; whereupon he fell into violent cold sweats: In a few minutes after this, his belly began to swell, with great gripings and pains in his back, which were attended with violent vomitings and purgings. He affirmed, that during the violence of these symptoms, his sight was gone twice for several minutes at a time; but that he could hear all the while. He said, that in his former experiment he had never deferred making use of his remedy longer than when he perceived the effects of the venom reaching his heart; but this time, being willing to satisfy the company thoroughly, and trusting to the speedy effects of the oil, which had never fail'd him, when used in time, he forbore to apply any thing, till he found himself exceeding ill, and quite giddy.

About an hour and a quarter after he had been first bit, a chaffing dish of glowing charcoal was brought in, and his arm (the cloaths being stript off of it) was held over it as near, as he could bear it, while his wife rubb'd in with her hand the fallad-oil (which the Dr. had bought by the name of *Lucca* oil, and kept in his pocket, lest they should privately add any thing to it) turning his arm continually round, as if she would have roasted it over the coals: He said that the pain soon abated, but the swelling did not diminish much; most violent vomitings and purgings soon ensued, and his pulse became so low, and so often interrupted, that it was thought proper by the phy-

physicians present to give him the following cordial draught at about  $\frac{1}{4}$  of an hour's interval between each.

1. Rx Aq. Lact. Paeon. comp. aa 3 iij Sp. Lavendulae 3i. m. pro duobus haustibus.

2. Rx Confect. Raleigh. 3 ss. Aq. Theriacal. 3 ss. Sp. C. C. gut. x. m. f. haustus.

3. R. Confect. Raleigh. Theriac. Andromach. aa 3ss. Sal. C. C. gr. v. Aq. Theriacal. 3ij. pro duobus haustibus.

He said he was not sensible of any great relief from these cordials, but that a glas or two of oil olive, drank down, seemed to give him some ease.

Continuing in this dangerous condition, he was put to bed, as soon as one could be got ready for him, where his arm was again bathed with his remedy over a pan of charcoal set by the bed side : But continuing to complain much of his back and belly, the Dr. advis'd his wife to rub them likewise with fallad oil, heated in a ladle over the charcoal ; which she did accordingly : Whereupon he declared he found immediate ease, as tho' by some charm ; and he had not above two or three reachings to vomit, and stools afterwards, but made water plentifully, which was not discolour'd : Then he soon fell into a sound sleep, only was often interrupted by persons coming to see and enquire after him till near 12 o'clock, from which time he slept continually to five or six next morning, when he awaked and found himself very well : But in the afternoon, upon drinking some rum and strong beer ; so as to be almost fuddled, the swelling returned with much pain and cold sweats, which abated soon, upon bathing the arm as before, and upon wrapping it up in brown paper, soaked with oil.

Immediately after the man, two pigeons were bit by the same viper, they soon sickened and seem'd giddy : Nothing being applied, the one died in about an hour's time, and the other half an hour after : The flesh of both was turned quite black, as if mortified ; the blood was coagulated and look'd black.

On the 3d of June, the man's arm remain'd swell'd, look'd red, marbled with spots of yellow, but felt soft ; and he had the perfect use of it, and even of his fingers, no pain or stiffness remaining. He then caused a small spaniel dog to be bit on the nose by a fresh viper : Some oil was immediately applied hot, and rubbed well in, till all the hair of his nose was thoroughly wet : The dog did not seem very uneasy

measly ; his nose only swell'd a little ; he eat soon after ; his nose was bathed once more that evening ; he was found very well next morning ; but his nose was bathed again, to make sure of the cure : He continued perfectly well without any symptoms ensuing, and was alive and well a year after.

Another pigeon was likewise bit under the wing at the same time with the dog, but by a fresh viper ; the oil was immediately applied hot, and rubbed well in, and the feathers of the wing were thoroughly wetted with it : The pigeon did not seem at all disorder'd with the venom, but eat soon after, and was found well the next morning, without any remarkable inflammation or swelling about the part. The hot oil was rubbed in again for two or three days, twice a day, and the bird continued well, which shews the efficacy of this remedy, since so small an animal receives the same quantity of venom by the bite as a larger one, and consequently is more liable to die under it : The viper catchers said, that they had experienced their remedy to take effect on cows, horses, and dogs, 10 hours after being bit : but that for themselves who are frequently bit in the fields, as they catch the vipers, they always carry a phial of sal-adil along with them, that as soon as they perceive themselves wounded, they without loss of time bathe the part with it ; and if it be the heel, they wet the stocking thoroughly with it ; if the finger, which happens oftenest, they pour some of it into that finger of their glove, which they immediately put on again, and thus never feel any farther inconvenience from the accident, not even so much as from the sting of a common bee. It may, perhaps, be found of use for the bite of rattle snakes, and other venomous creatures ; specially if we consider that in the fields a man seldom or ever receives more than one bite at a time, which doth not infect him with so much venom, as was instill'd into the man's blood, when in these voluntary experiments he suffer'd himself to be bitten twice together, and had likewise been bitten three times, but about a week or 10 days before ; some remains of which venom, it is highly reasonable to imagine, might still infect his blood at the time he repeated the experiments ; so as to make a fresh quantity of the venom operate with greater violence upon his body, than if he had been quite a fresh man, and never infected with the like poison before ; or at least at so great an interval of time, that

his blood might have been intirely free from all remains of such an acrid infection. From these experiments is it not reasonable to imagine, that the oil by itself may be as efficacious against the sting of a scorpion, as if scorpions were infused in it ?

And now a remedy against the bite of the viper is as publickly known as the famous *Dampier's powder* against the bite of a mad dog, which was first publish'd by Sir *Hans Sloane* in Phil. Transl. N° 237, and afterwards by his proposal to the Royal College of physicians in London in 1720, introduced into the London *Pharmacopæia*, under the name of *pulvis antilyffus*; the composition of which is *lichen cinereus terrestis*, or ash-colour'd ground liver-wort and black pepper; the manner of giving it not only to men, but to dogs and cattle, is accurately set down in the above-mentioned *Transaction*: So that now it is to be hoped, that certain cures are discover'd for the only two sorts of venomous bites of animals, to which the happy soil of Great-Britain exposes its inhabitants.

The *lichen cinereus terrestis* in a letter of Mr. *Oldenburgh's*, secretary of the Royal Society, dated July 6. 1671, is mentioned as being exceedingly efficacious in curing dogs bitten by mad dogs. Vide *Derham's Collection of Philosophical letters between Mr. Ray, and his correspondents* p. 110, printed at London in 1718, 8<sup>v</sup>o.

Dr. *Mortimer* adds the following passage taken out of the journal-book of the Royal Society, supposing it to be what Mr. *Oldenburgh* hints at in his letter.

' Nov. 16. 1671. Sir *Robert Moray* exhibited a certain plant, (which Mr. *Wray* calls *lichen terrestis cinereus*) said by him to be good to cure dogs bitten by mad dogs: His Royal Highness having caus'd it to be given to a whole kennel of dogs bitten by a mad one, which were all cured except one of them, to whom none of it was given.'

The specimen was kept in the repository.

The same virtue is likewise ascribed to this plant in the 3d part of *Morison's Plantar. Histor. Oxon.* published at Oxford Ann. 1699, in folio, p. 632, where the author speaking of the *lichen terrestis cinereus*, *Raii Hist. & Synops.* says, *adversus morsum canis rabidi egregium est medicamentum.*

*Dampier* and the *College of Physicians*, in their *pulvis Antilyffus*, prescribe equal quantities of the *lichen* and pepper. But Dr. *Mead*, in a single quarto leaf published by him,

1735, hath alter'd the proportions of the composition, prescribing double the quantity of *lichen* to that of the pepper. This difference in the proportions must be left to the judgment of practitioners: But upon the authority of another minute in the Society's Journal-book, it may not be improper to make an addition to the above-mention'd *Dampier's powder*.

' March 7. 1671-2, Sir Robert Moray mentioned, that a whole kennel of dogs, belonging to his Royal Highness, were bitten by a mad dog, and had been lately cured by a certain herb, call'd *stellaria*, or *star of the earth*.'

This plant is the *lychnis viscosa*, *flore muscofo Casp. Baubin.* or *Spanish catch-fly*. Vide *Phil. Trans.* N° 187, where is a receipt to cure mad dogs, &c. wherein this plant is a principal ingredient; which receipt, communicated by Sir Robert Gourdon, was there published by his Majesty's special Command, *Ann. 1687.*

Wherefore suppose the composition were to be thus.

Take ash-colour'd ground liver-wort, black pepper, and the herb *Spanish catch-fly*, all finely powder'd, of each two drachms for four doses, to be taken as *Dampier* prescribes in *Phil. Trans.* N° 237.

Dr. Mortimer only adds a proposal of his own, which he made in his *Thes. Inaugur. de ingressu humorum in corpus humanum*, Lugd. Bat. 1724. namely, that the use of the hot bath for persons bit by a mad dog, or hot fomentations, might be of greater service than cold applications: For, a cold bath shuts the pores, as a warm one opens them; therefore, the blood being allowed to be greatly inflam'd in this case; and *Dampier's powder* being a very hot medicine, it is reasonable to think, that when a patient takes it, the setting him up to the chin in hot water for some hours, would help the operation of the powders, by diluting the blood, and relaxing the pores.

Of an inguinal Rupture, with a Pin in the Appendix *Cecii incrustated with stone*; and some Observations on Wounds in the Guts; by Mr. Claudius Amyand. *Phil. Trans.* N° 443. p. 329.

Octob. 8. 1735. A Boy, 11 years of age, was admitted into St. George's Hospital, near Hyde-Park-corner, for the cure of a *bernia scrotalis*, which he had from his infancy, and a *fistula* between the *scrotum* and thigh

terminating into it, which, for a month before, had discharg'd a great quantity of an unkindly matter: The rupture was small, and not troublesome, and part of it could be replaced; but as it appear'd that the sinuous ulcer sprung from that part that could not; so it was evident that the cure of the *fistula* depended upon the cure of the *hernia*, which latter could be obtain'd by no other operation than that for the *bubonocele*, which was accordingly performed the 6th of December following.

This operation prov'd the most complicated and perplexing Mr. Amyand ever met with, several unlook'd for oddities and events concurring to make it as intricate, as it prov'd laborious and difficult.

This tumour, principally compos'd of the *omentum*, was about the bigness of a small pippin: In it was found the appendix *cæci*, perforated by a pin, incrusted with stone towards the head, the point of which having perforated that gut, gave way to a discharge of *fæces* through the fistulous opening therein, as the portion of the pin, obturating the aperture in it, shifted its situation. The abscess, formed in the hernal bag occasionally, and the suppuration for the two months before from this place externally, had knit and confounded, and embodied together, as it were, the gut and *omentum* with the hernal bag, and these with the spermatic vessels, and the testicle; so that it was as difficult to distinguish them from each other, as it was to separate them without wounding them; this pin, whose point was fix'd in the *omentum*, continually shifting its situation, and occasioning a discharge of *fæces*. The pin frequently lying in the way of the knife, and starting out of the wounded gut as a shot out of a gun, the inundation of *fæces* upon this occasion, from a gut we could not well distinguish, were many difficulties in the way. But the greatest still was what to do with the gut, which all this while was unknown and which we could not come to the knowledge of, till the operation was over: For, this appendix *cæci*, which was the only gut found in the rupture, was so contracted, carious, duplicated, and changed in its figure and substance, that was impossible to determine what kind of gut it was; & to find out that it was only this appendix elongated, and in disguise.

None of these difficulties were apprehended, when we undertook the operation, in which we proceeded as usual: The *omentum* lying uppermost in the hernial bag was separated from the parts it was connected with, and particularly the gut it was embodied with, and afterwards cut off close to the abdominal muscles, without any previous ligature, the vessels in it being small, and the substance of it more like a sweat-bread than a caul.

A deal of time was spent in this dissection: We were straitened for room, and greatly disturbed by the discharge of the faces coming out of the gut, upon every motion the pin, lodged therein, and the *omentum*, suffered, upon the separation of these from each other. The gut forming a double tube, like a double-jointed siphon, continuing in the curve, as it passed over the testicle and spermatics, was separated one part from the other and from the adjacent parts, as far as the aperture in the abdominal muscles, where the unperforated part of it was separated therefrom, and thence stretched out and unfolded; which brought to view the aperture made in it by the pin, hitherto concealed, thro' which that part of it, which was incrusted, had just made its way out upon an occasional pressure, as a cork out of a bottle. It was the opinion of the physicians and surgeons present, to amputate this gut: To which end a circular ligature was made about the sound part of it, two inches above the aperture; and this being cut off an inch below the ligature, was replaced in the abdomen, in such a manner that an artificial anus might be made there, if the patient's case should require it. Afterwards so much of the hernial bag as had been detached from the skin, and spermatics, &c. was cut off, which, as they appeared in a sound state, were preserved in their site. The fistulous opening adjoining to the thigh, and answering to the aperture in the gut, was opened; some angles of skin in the way were removed; the aperture in the muscles, which had been enlarged by incision, was stopped up with a tent; and the rest of the dressings, and the situation of the patient, ordered in such a manner, as to remove from the wound all such pressure from within, as might disturb the cure.

This was a continued dissection, attended with danger to parts not well distinguished; it lasted near half an hour, and the patient bore it very courageously. During the operation the patient vomited plentifully, and had several stools, but was soon composed by half an ounce of diacodium, and emollient embrocations and fomentations, frequently applied warm on the belly:

belly : He was blooded, and an emollient carminative oily clyster was ordered to be applied in the evening ; but as he was easy, and the belly not tense, that was omitted. He was confined to a very spare diet, and his body kept open by clysters injected every second day, when stools were wanted, to prevent straining. When dressed upon the fourth day after the operation, every thing appeared well, and we had good reason to hope for a cure, especially as the discharge by the anus was natural. The tent put into the abdominal aperture was not removed till the eighth. On the tenth the ligature round the *appendix cæci*, where it had been amputated, dropped off, and no fæces followed it ; and as it was then plain they had taken the natural course, from that time the wound was treated like an ordinary one, only it was observed to keep a strong and constant pressure over the abdominal aperture, as well to fence against the intrusion of the *viscera* into the wound, as by strong incarnation and cicatrice, to secure the patient effectually against a rupture. During the time of the cure he was confined to his bed, always kept to spare-diet, and ordered never to go to stool but in a bed pan : By these means the wound was compleatly healed up in less than a month, and the patient soon after discharged out of the *Hospital* with a truss, which he was ordered to wear some time, in order to confirm the cure.

That the *appendix cæci* should be the only gut found in this rupture, is a singular case in practice ; this was full of fæces and could occasionally be distended with an additional quantity which upon pressure was returned into the *colon*, with that kind of noise which guts replaced generally give : This had occasioned a diminution of the tumour when compressed, before the operation was performed, as the patient was lying backwards with his head downwards, and an increase of it as he stood erect, when the fæces from the *colon* could get into it again.

The patient did not remember when he swallowed the pin which had perforated the gut within the rupture : But as this rupture was, from his infancy, fixed and unreducible ; so it is likely the pin had then made its way into the *appendix cæci* prolapsed ; and that an inflammation ensuing thereon, had occasioned an adhesion, whereby the increase of the tumour had been checked, and the reduction of the parts, prolapsed thereby, rendered impracticable.

The surgeons who constantly dressed the patient before the operation, did then observe, as they had since, that the humour discharged formerly at the fistula, had frequently the appear-

ance,

ance, and as they thought, the smell of excrement: So that there is no doubt but the cause of it was the wound made in the gut, by the pin giving way occasionally to such a discharge. The patient also perfectly remembers, that the impostumation or gathering preceding the fistulous discharge was attended with very little pain, or much less than generally attends suppuration; which shews that the extravasation of the *fæces* from the gut into the hernial bag, and the bursting of this bag, were the cause of the fistulous discharge, and the continuance of it outwardly.

As to the pin found in the rupture at the time of the operation, it is observable, that two thirds of it, incrusted with a chalky matter, were confined and concealed within the gut; the other third next the point, had made its way through it; the point of which was so lodged in the *omentum* wherein it was fixed, as to leave a free passage for the excrement from the perforated gut outwardly, whenever the perforation in the gut, upon shifting the position of the inclosed pin, could open, and give a passage for the discharge of the *fæces* this way, which was as often as this conical or pyramidal pin altered its place, or did not exactly obturate the aperture in the *appendix cæci* which it exactly fitted. It has been already observed, that the aperture, made in the gut by the pin, lay concealed, the point being lodged in the *omentum*, lying parallel with the gut, which was here duplicated, where it was secured in such manner, that it seemed almost impossible it could ever make its way out of this place, and its other confinement in the gut, as the aperture was callous, and so resisting, that it was with some violence it was forced out of its confinement through an aperture, fitted for the point only, and so streight, that the explosion upon its coming out was like that of a cork out of a bottle: For, tho' it appeared that the opening had been occasionally enlarged, as the incrusted part of the pin was pressed forward into it; yet it is plain nature's attempts to get rid of it had been fruitless; and might possibly have been so during all the patient's life.

Sir Hans Sloane has furnished the curious with instances of bodies incrusted in the guts with stone, and of some making their way out, when there was little probability of it. Daily experience shews how far nature will struggle to free herself; so that it is always most eligible to trust them to her care: This may appear from the difficulties that have attended the cure of this case, which at last did not prove so successful as was at first hoped for: For, the patient having been remiss in wearing his trusfs,

truss, upon some effort the guts found a way into the groin again, six months after the healing of the wound. This case likewise shews, that the best operation, and the utmost care are no security against the relapse of a rupture. This is the third or fourth instance Mr. Amyand has met with, of the insufficiency of this operation to effectuate a cure of ruptures; and yet it is plain this is by far more likely to prove effectual, than the caustic or any other method cried up for the cure of the evil. In a growing age, a good spring truss is an effectual remedy; and in an adult, this should be the ultimate one, though it be no more than a palliative cure.

*N. B.* The omentum, and the gut, amputated, with the part perforating it, are in the repository of the Royal Society.

This observation puts Mr. Amyand in mind of two he made during the late war in Flanders, and of two more in London.

*Observation 1.* Upon opening the body of a soldier, who had laboured many years with an inguinal and scrotal rupture, Mr. Amyand found in a segment of the *ileum*, an appendix like a *cæcum*, about six inches long, arising from that gut, and nearly of the same diameter with the gut itself, the coats where were somewhat thinner than those of the *ileum*; this *cæcum* did arise from, whose membranes and dimensions were natural. The elongation of a segment of the *ileum* appeared, as if it had been lodged in the rupture bag it lay near to, and into which had been stretched along the *vagina* of the spermatic vessel down to the testicle, according to the expansion of the rupture bag, which was of the same dimension: This production of the *ileum*, or appendix *ilei*, was full of *faeces*, somewhat narrower at its origin or opening into the *ileum* than elsewhere, but nearly resembling it, and as found as that gut it sprung from.

*Obs. 2.* A soldier having been shot through the belly, the ball was cut out upon the posterior part of the *os ilium*: For several months after the *faeces* were chiefly discharged through both wounds; and at dressings a great number of flat worms, dead or alive, were found upon the plaster. In five or six months after, the *faeces* having by degrees taken their course thro' the anus, the two wounds being healed up, the patient returned to his duty as a soldier.

Eight years after this, Mr. Amyand had him again under his care at the hospital, where he was brought with the head of the *os humeri*, together with that of the acromion and clavicle, the articulation with the *scapula*, fractured by a cannon-shot, which thereby was all laid open: The limb was immediate-

at off in the articulation with the *scapula*, having first made a ligature about the flesh surrounding the vessels, by thrusting close to the bone a pack-needle, armed with a strong pack-thread, there being no room for the *tourniquet* (vide M. Le Dran's *Chirurgical Observations*, Vol. II. Obs. 43. 12°. 1731. where he has described the manner of performing the amputation of the *humerus* in the articulation with the *scapula*) The patient lost very little more blood in the operation, than if a *tourniquet* had been applied: But the great discharge of matter sunk him, and he died the eighth day after.

The death of this patient gave Mr. Amyand an opportunity of examining how the former wound in the gut had been cured. He thought the wound had been in the *ileum*, from the thinness of the *fæces* discharged through that wound; but upon dissection he found it had been in the broadest part of the *colon*. This was very much contracted in that part of it that had been shot through, where it appeared pursed up, and inseparably connected with the *os ilium*. However, the patient never complained of any inconvenience therefrom, tho' the narrowness of the gut in this place was such, as seemed to make the descent of the *fæces* difficult.

*Obs. 3.* On the 19th of January, 1729, Mr. Amyand attended Miss —, 14 years of age, on account of a suppurated humour on the navel, whose situation was under the *musculi recti*. This patient had had, what is truly called, a starting at the navel in her infancy; and latterly had complained, at times, of swelling there, and likewise of colics, gripes, or vomitings, that used to go off, particularly as that swelling disappeared. As these grew more troublesome, she latterly had taken a vomit, from which time she had been greatly costive; and her reachings, vomitings, and colics, had proved more constant, together with an increasing tension and pain in the forepart of the belly, and a tenderness at the navel, as matter was gathering there.

Some days before Mr. Amyand was called in, Dr. Campbell had made use of the properest methods to remove these complaints. Upon a consultation, we agreed to discharge by incision the matter collected at the navel, being about a spoonful of undigested fluid, that had made its way through the *aponeurosis* of the abdominal muscles adjoining to the navel *cicatrice*: Notwithstanding which, the tension of the belly, the costiveness, the reachings and vomitings, rather increasing, as in the *miserere*; and having thence reason to apprehend a strangulation and suppuration of some of the *viscera* in the neighbourhood of

the navel, Dr. Hollings being call'd in, it was agreed to enlarge the aperture made by the aforementioned matter in the *linea alba*, with a view and intent to know the state the parts were in, to reduce what we found there, or at least to procure a more free discharge to the matter collected under the *aponeurosis* of the muscles: For a fortnight and more, every thing was done that could internally or externally ease the discharge, and open the passage for the *fæces* downwards, but all in vain. The patient was a whole fortnight without a stool, all the symptoms daily increasing, tho' towards the latter end she vomited rather more seldom: Yet as she was still taking in, so the dimensions of her belly increas'd in proportion; and the more for that the air confin'd and rarefied in the *fæces* pent in, added daily to the tension; which at last had stretch'd the skin to the utmost. There was also a suppression of urine, the *fundus* of the bladder being stretch'd towards the navel, at the same time that the neck of it was compressed by the *fæces* bearing down in the *pelvis*, and a tumour sprung up about the *anus*, as if they had been seeking a passage that way. It was propos'd to scoop them out; but the *rectum* was found empty, and the obstruction was as far beyond the reach of any chirurgical operation, as it had prov'd against all the means hitherto employ'd.

The patient was now reduced to the lowest ebb. The dejections were excrementitious, her pulse depress'd and extremely weak; she had rigors, clammy sweats, and all the symptoms that denote an approaching death, from a mortification in the guts, when of a sudden the *fæces* bursted the gut, and forcing their way thro' the incision at the navel, a quantity equal to 2 or 3 quarts, mixed with various kinds of fruits and seeds, which she had been taking during her illness, flow'd out like a torrent, with a surprising roaring noise, which gave her immediate relief. The discharge continued very great all that day, but the aperture in the hernial bag did not answer to that in the gut; so that the discharge there was at times checked by substances obturating it; this aperture, therefore, was enlarged by incision; and thereby the patient was releas'd from the violence of the vomiting and hickup. From this time we began to entertain some hopes of a cure: For, tho' the patient was extremely reduced, and the discharge continued exceeding great during several days, with a *singultus* and vomitings; yet she was refresh'd with sleep, and was able to retain some nourishment. The tension of the belly subsisted, tho' in a lesser degree, till the *fæces* had made their way downwards; and so did the vomit-

vomitings at times, as long as the inflammation continued. The diet was such as the case required; clysters were frequently applied, as well as fomentations, and every thing else that could determine or invite the discharge thro' the *anus*, and restore the distended guts to their tone: But from the time the *fæces* bursted the gut, it was 12 days before any took the natural course; and then matters were brought to the brink of ruin: For, they then pour'd down so fast for a day or two, that the patient was like to have sunk under them: However, this severe evacuation was timely conquer'd by absorbents and diluents: It took off the remaining tension of the belly and all vomitings: And as from this time the *fæces* had a free discharge the natural way, and the discharge thro' the wound decreas'd in proportion; so the wound in the gut, and the external wound in the integuments, were heal'd up in about 3 weeks, in such manner that the patient has ever since enjoy'd a most perfect state of health.

*Obs. 4.* It happen'd that Mr. Amyand was not a mere stranger to the principal circumstances of this case, as in 1716 he had with Mr. Lafage, surgeon, attended such another, viz. a girl about 4 years of age, in whom the same cause had produced the like effects, For, upon a suppuration of the *omentum*, strangled in the navel of this patient, the *fæces* detain'd in the neighbouring gut had in like manner forced their way thro' the navel: The accident previous to the bursting and subsequent upon it, having been nearly the same as in the preceeding observation; only the cure prov'd somewhat more tedious: For, the wound was kept open by curran-seeds frequently working their way out at the navel for about 12 months after, when it was made complete: So that the hardships the patient has undergone since in child-bearing, and several hazardous labours, have not been able to disturb it.

Hence it appears, that the parts inflamed and in contact have coalesced and knit together; so as to prevent any extravasation from the wounded or burst gut into the cavity of the *abdomen*.

That the cure in the 2 last cases has been owing to a free discharge of the *fæces* thro' the wound; and consequently, that when in a gut-rupture, the part prolapsed cannot be reduced, a cure may be hoped for by making such an opening in the guts, before they are quite sphacelated, as may procure a free discharge to the *fæces* pent in, and thereby secure the patient's life.

That if this happen to the *colon* or *cæcum*, the tube of it will be so far preserv'd, as to open a free discharge for the *fæces* the natural way; and if that cannot be obtain'd in a wound of the

small gut ; yet the discharge may be secur'd by making the wound an artificial *anus*.

That the readiest way to obtain a cure of a wounded or bursted gut, is to keep it in contact with the external wound and the patient at a very low diet.

That the deligation of the vessels of the *omentum*, previous to amputation, being liable to several exceptions, it is more eligible to forbear it, saving when the vessels are large : For, when reduced loose and floating, it is less liable to the inflammation and suppurations that attend the separation of the ligature.

*A Continuation of the Experiments on Mercury; by Dr. Boerhaave. Phil. Trans. N° 443. p. 343. Translated from the Latin.*

**B**Y the observations made on quicksilver *Phil. Trans.* N° 430. p. 145. it appears, that tho' it seem continually to change into other bodies, it surprisingly retains its peculiar property, whereby it is immutable.

Dr. Boerhaave's sole design at that time was to give a faithful and accurate account of the processes he had made on mercury and the effects produced therefrom ; in order to save others the trouble and expence of repeating them.

In the *Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris* for 1734, the Dr. publishes farther experiments on the same subject : And by comparing both these dissertations together we shall be enabled to form a judgment of the fidelity and minute accuracy of the ancient and genuine alchemists, as what they may have said of mercury ; and at the same time see, that great care and prudence are necessary to explain their meaning, or pass a just critic upon them : And he also hopes to put the studious of chemistry upon their guard against the vague doctrine of modern alchemists, which contains nothing valuable or solid, and who themselves are masters of no other art than that whereby they would cheat those of real gold, whom they would persuade that they could instruct in the true method of making it : What the Dr. has formerly demonstrated of the immutability, simplicity and peculiar properties of mercury, he now comes to confirm,

i. Pure mercury, such as is commonly sold by the company at *Amsterdam*, digested for some time over the fire, does not change into metal.

*Process.* Upon distilling this mercury, it left no dregs behind ; mixing it afterwards with distill'd vinegar and sea salt

and shaking it for some time, it continu'd pure. Straining it thro' leather, and pouring a pound of it into a tall clean body, whose mouth was stopt with a paper cone, which was again covered with another paper, fastened well to the neck of the body, that no dust might enter, but the air pass and re-pass freely; he committed it to a constant degree of heat, which by M. *Fahrenheit's* thermometer was kept up from the 15<sup>th</sup> of November, 1718, till the 23<sup>d</sup> of May, 1734 above the 100th degree; and he found the mercury in a fluid state, with a small quantity of a black powder on its surface; and grinding this powder in a mortar, it revived into mercury. He put this whole quantity of mercury into a clean glass retort in order to distill it; and heightning the fire towards the end, till the retort became almost ignited, there remain'd nothing at all in the retort; for, the mercury came over without any sensible alteration.

*Corollaries.* 1. Fire, heighten'd to the degree and continu'd for the time above-mentioned, causes no alteration in the fluidity, volatility or nature of mercury, put into a vessel, where the air has free access to it: nor is there any separation made of the pure from the impure.

2. Nor any sensible generation of metal in the smallest quantity.

3. Much less of gold or silver.

4. None of the mercury was by this process fixt, tho' continued for 15 years and  $\frac{1}{2}$ ; nor was there the least appearance of a beginning metallic fixation, nay not of lead; which, according to those who value themselves upon knowing these things best, is the first metal that should be formed from this process.

5. This process does in no manner favour the opinion of such as affirm, that metals are formed from mercury, as the matter, and from fire, as the fixing sulphur united together by digestion.

6. It seems entirely probable that all such processes, made with common genuine quicksilver, do nowise tally with what authors promise about them; since that small quantity of black powder, above-mention'd, is lighter than the mercury on whose surface it floats, and very easily becomes mercury again: The reader may see in *Phil. Trans.* N° 430 what has been said on the like kind of black powder, produced by shaking only.

7. It does not appear, that mercury in the mines can be changed into any metallic matter by the sole action of the subterraneous heat acting for some time, and in a place where the air has free access; for, the heat, in places where metallic veins are found, seldom exceeds the 70th degree. They say, indeed, that 1000 years are requisite to produce this effect; but how could mortals, who are so short liv'd, have known this with certainty.

8. As to sulphur, which the alchemists have taken for one of the principles of metals, and of which they say, that it unites the elements of mercury, that it may become a solid body and fixt in such a degree of fire as may fuse and render it malleable: This sulphur seems to differ entirely from that matter of light or fire; tho' fire alone be the only instrument of producing this surprising union between sulphur and mercury.

In this process, however, the air had a free admission to the mercury; and perhaps it might be alledged that this is the very thing that hinders the action of the fire; the rather as Alchemists assert, that crude air hinders the sophical coction; and this induced the Doctor to make the following experiment.

9. Mercury put to digest in vessels closely stopped for the time mentioned below, produces no metal.

*Process.* The Doctor put pure mercury into a conical glass vessel with a flat bottom, such as Assayers make use of to separate gold and silver, and expos'd it to a heat of 100 degrees from the 6th of December 1732, till the 8th of June 1733, and the vessel, being always closely stopt, suffered no remarkable change; he took six ounces of this mercury, and put them into a vessel like the former, into whose mouth he inserted the neck of an inverted bolthead; without luting the vessels, he expos'd the mercury for four days to a sand heat so intense, that the mercury began to ascend, in order to evaporate all the moisture it might contain: And when there seemed to remain not the least sign of humidity, he luted the junctures exactly. He exposed the mercury to a pretty strong sand heat, whereby it ascended and descended gently: He continued this degree of heat till the 29th of January 1734. In the bottom of the vessel he found nothing but fluid mercury strewed lightly over with a light, subtile, black powder, without any thing fix'd or precipitated, tho' the degree of heat was nearer that of boiling water: He afterwards passed this me-

ury through a clean, dry, paper funnel, whose lower orifice could scarce pass a hair.

The purest mercury passed thro' this small hole ; and on the sides and about the hole of the funnel, there remained a small quantity of a black matter, which ground in a mortar, became mercury again. He committed the mercury thus depurated to a sand heat, in a clean glass retort for distillation, and at the last to a fire of suppression : There remained nothing fix'd in the bottom of the retort ; the mercury appeared somewhat more fluid than before, but in other respects it was nowise changed.

*Corol.* Hence we may conclude the same things as from the preceeding experiment ; and if to these we add what has been laid *Phil. Trans.* N<sup>o</sup> 430, it will plainly appear that mercury in its own nature is invariable either by shaking it mechanically, or by distilling and digesting it as above described. From all which the Doctor concludes, that chymists may save themselves the needless trouble of repeating these processes, whereby they endeavour to fix mercury, or change it into some other body ; and he advises them to be on their guard against ignorant pretenders.

The Doctor here gives an account of the success of other laborious experiments, he made on metals, besides the preceding ones. He labour'd long to discover whether metals can by art be resolv'd into mercury, and into another principle ; a great many authors affirm this so distinctly and in so many places of their writings, that the Doctor saw no cause of questioning the thing itself : He took it upon the credit of these authors ; but to be convinced by his own eyes, he made trial on lead. The celebrated *Joh. Baptista Van Helmont.* *potest. medicam.* §. 40, speaks to the following purpose ; I found, says he, that the crudity of lead was soluble by the unctuousness of fixt salts, and sometimes deleble by fire only ; and thus may the parts of the compound be divided, and the crude mercury permitted to run : His son *Franciscus Mercurius van Helmont* in his paradoxical discourses, London 1685, 8<sup>vo</sup>. Part II. § 22. p. 111. speaks as follows : When lead is dissolv'd by alcalis and salts, or oils, which take in the sulphur, and separate it from the body, the lead by this means is changed into a volatile, running mercury, which can no longer endure the fire, as before, but is cold and running like water, and without a metalline form.' *Joachim Becher* affirms the same thing, and promises

mises success to a great many experiments he describes to this purpose; vide *Collectanea quingentorum experiment.* p. 310—333. The following is a distinct and brief account of what Dr. Boerhaave learned about this matter, after a tedious and long continued process.

*Process.* As much pure ceruss, as well could, was dissolv'd in spirit of nitre, diluted with six times its weight of water this solution he filtered, and it was found exceeding clear. From this liquor, put into a clean glass vessel, and insipidated by a gentle heat, and afterwards put to stand in a cool place, were form'd crystals, 14 ounces of which he took, and ground to a powder in a glass mortar, with a glass pestle. This powder he dissolv'd in the purest rain-water and diluted the solution with thrice its quantity of rain-water; he afterwards pour'd on gently and carefully another filtered, and very clear solution of sal ammoniac in rain-water: This mixture becomes white like milk, and the lead immediately precipitates, as happens to silver dissolv'd in *aqua fortis*, upon the admixture of sal ammoniac. The powder precipitated to the bottom, which was as white as snow, elixited, and afterwards dried, became very insipid and weigh'd 18 ounces and  $\frac{1}{2}$ . He put six ounces of this white and dry powder into a very clean glass urinal and pour'd on it, to the height of two inches, a very strong lixivium of quick-lime and pot-ash, which he had kept for several years in a phial closely stopped; he afterwards cover'd the urinal with filtering paper tied fast about its neck, and put it into a heat of digestion of 96 degrees, where he left it from the 6th of February 1732, till the 13th of August following, to try whether this mixture, exposed to the open air, would be changed by a heat of digestion; he found nothing but a white mass, which reduced to a powder, tasted of salt; then he put into a glass retort coated over with a composition of loam and sand, and urged it with a naked fire to ignition, and continued the same degree of heat for three hours. There ascended into the neck of the retort a little white smoke, but no mercury at all, and at the bottom remained a brittle semivitrified matter of a cineritious colour; this he reduced again into a powder of the same colour, and ground it for some time in a mortar with a lixivium of fix'd alcaline salts and quick-lime, and dried it again by a slow fire; he pour'd on fresh alcali, and exposed it from the 18th of August 1732, till the 15th of October 1733 to a heat of 96 degrees, and

grinding it daily in a glass mortar, which being cover'd over with paper, freely admitted the air : It was then a white, dry, and sharp powder ; which after pouring on the same lixivium second time, and grinding it, was reduced into a paste ; he committed it to a heat of putrefaction, as above, grinding it several times from the day above mentioned, till the 21st of February, 1734. Then it was a saline, white mass, and nearer the taste of sea salt. After it had been ground well lixiated, and very slowly dried, he found a very insipid white powder, which he put into a retort, and kept for several days in the strongest fire the luted glass could bear. On the 20th of May 1734, there came over no mercury ; the neck of the retort was tinged with different colours ; the friable mass that remained at the bottom, exhibited likewise various colours dispos'd in layers, and weigh'd five ounces six drachms and  $\frac{1}{2}$  : The powder, into which the mass was reduced, look'd of the colour of reddish ashes.

*Scholium.* In this process, 1. The lead became ceruss penetrat'd and dissolv'd by the vapour of vinegar, and reduced to a fine calx and afterwards to a fine powder. 2. It was dissolv'd in diluted spirit of nitre ; and thus the lead became a very clear, sweet, colourless liquor, in which it was reduced and divid'd into its minutest particles. 3. The dissolv'd sal ammoniac pour'd on it by expelling the spirit of nitre, substitut'd in its stead spirit of sea-salt, and intimately uniting with the metallic part of the lead, dispos'd it as much as possible to expedite the separation of the mercury from the metallic part, according to the opinion of those who are supposed to have writ best on these matters : For, they principally ascribe to sal ammoniac and sea-salt the property of separating mercury from metals. 4. We have seen that the calx thus prepar'd, and kept in digestion for 7 months with the strongest alcali should have render'd the mercury manifest, by absorbing the sulphur of lead : Yet tho' a great degree of fire was applied, it did not yield the least mercury. 5. This mass being strongly ground for some time, and afterwards mix'd with the strongest fresh alcali, and digested for 14 months, exhibited no sign of mercury. It was again ground with fresh alcali, and digested for five months ; so that after these processes it was sufficiently exposed to the action of the alkaline salt, to have time to separate the sulphureous part of the lead, and to have the mercury, freed from its sulphur by the force of fire, extracted

from this mass. However after all this labour, the strongest degree of fire extracted no mercury.

It therefore appears that what authors have boldly pronounced of the facility of extracting mercury from lead, is not confirmed by experience: For, say these authors, lead is metal containing a great deal of mercury, which by the resultating salts very readily resolves into mercury. The thing is, therefore, more difficult in other metals: Yet authors promise themselves that this can be done pretty easily, and they prescribe methods differing little from that just mentioned, and from which after so much pains the Dr. learn'd that the event was by no means so successful as they promis'd: And the Dr. very much questions, whether the assertions of these authors on this head be sufficiently supported by observations: And he is rather inclined to think that they have given into their own opinion on this matter, than confus'd experience. What has been hitherto said will at least serve to save the reader the trouble and expence of repeating these observations, and prevent his easily admitting pretended principles of metallurgy. It were very much to be wish'd that these ingenious and laborious chemists would give us a faithful account of the success of such experiments which frustrated their hopes, and never prescribe us processes, before they have tried them themselves; which would be saving of time, expence and labour, and chemistry in a short time would obtain a place among the sciences: Otherwise we shall never arrive at truth, which is the sole aim of chemical disquisitions.

3. Isaac Holland writes, that mercury may be easily extracted from the salt of lead, made by distill'd vinegar. D. Boerhaave, having a mind to make trial of the best lethargic and distill'd wine vinegar, prepared the concrete juice called *succus saturni*; two ounces of which he calcin'd in an open glass vessel by a gentle fire continued from the 6th of July 1734, till the 19th of July following: The white powder, ground from it, was with a glass pestle ground very fine in a glass mortar. The trituration was very quick, and continued for some time, and at times pouring a lixivium, saturated with a very strong fixt alkaline salt, as much as the water could dissolve; he kept it in the same mortar covered over with paper at a continued heat from the 21st of July, to the 27th of November. As soon as this powder was dried, he took care to pour fresh lixivium to it, and grind it again.

the time. By drying, wetting, and grinding it alternately all that time, he kept it cover'd over with paper at a heat of 90 degrees. On the last day of the proceſſ he reduc'd this dry and white matter to an impalpable powder, and put this powder into a luted glaſs retort, and exposed it for four hours to a fire that was carefully heighten'd by little and little, till the retort became ignited. And yet not the least grain of mercury appear'd either in the receiver, or neck of the retort, at the bottom of which was found a very black light mass like a powder, and of a very acrid, alcaline taste. On the 28th of November he put it on a glaſs dish in a cellar, where immediately it became moist; and there he left it till the 8th of January 1735; at which time it was increased in bulk, all the saline part having run spontaneously into a liquor, by means of the moist air, the metallic part remaining at the bottom under the form of a black powder. The whole was dried at the same time both what had run and what had not, and this mixture was found to be very black. He again put it into a glaſs retort, and towards the end he urged it with a fire, which ignited the whole for four hours; and there appeared not the least sign of mercury, either in the receiver or in the retort, at the bottom of which remained a matter of a cineritious colour and cauſtic taste like fire, which exposed to the open air immediately rups into a liquor.

In this proceſſ, lead dissolv'd with pure vinegar, and dispos'd in ſuch manner as to be intimately penetrated by the ſalt; mixt and ground with a fixt cauſtic, liquid, alcali; ex- posed to digest; ſet to putrify, brought to a ſtrong fire, and made to run by the moisture of the air, for a philosophical month: and again ground, dried, and urged with a ſtrong degree of fire yielded no mercury at all.

4. After the Dr. had been assured from his own experience, that the ſalts, called *reſuſcitating ſalts*, could not, in the manner describ'd, extract mercury from lead, he had a mind to try, what mercury itſelf could produce in this caſe; especially ſince chemiſts call this fluid, *the water of metals*, in which ſay they, they die, revive, and become more beautiful, than they were before. He therefore pour'd an ounce of lead into a clean iron ladle; and at the ſame time he heated in ſuch another ladle three ounces of pure mercury; he afterwards pour'd the heated mercury to the melted lead; and they were immediately mixt together,

and formed a solid mass of a silver colour : He ground this mass, and after he had made it soft again, he heated it in a small phial, which he afterwards stopt with a cork, and put in a digesting heat, kept up always to an equable degree, viz. 84 degrees, from the 11th of February, 1732, till the 10th of January, 1735 : It became a soft amalgam, yielding like butter to the pestle, immediately growing black upon shaking it, and weighing 4 ounces. The same day he expos'd it in a clean glas's retort to a sand heat, and at length to so intense a fire of suppression, that all the sand was ignited for 4 hours ; there came over into the receiver 2 ounces 6 drachms and  $\frac{1}{2}$  of mercury. The red powder formed by the mercury in distillation at the bottom and neck of the retort, and what little mercury stuck to the neck, and the few globules of pure lead appearing like a powder, weigh'd together 52 grains. In fine, there was at the bottom a solid mass of lead, that weigh'd an ounce, wanting 5 grains, which compensated the weight of those small globules of lead, just mention'd, that appeared like a powder : Whence it is evident, that the whole quantity of lead remain'd, and that 43 grains of mercury were dissipate. Such as have any knowledge of these matters will readily find out the cause of this dissipation in the reasons above-mentioned ; especially when they consider that a part of this mercury does in distillation adhere to the surface of a spacious, large receiver ; and that the other part does in the form of *nubeculae*, float on the surface of the water, which must always be pour'd into the receiver.

By this process the Dr. learn'd, that no mercury can be extracted from lead, by a continu'd digestion of both for 3 years, nor by the strongest distillation ; nor that mercury by this means can be fixt into lead : For, in distilling the mercury, a small quantity thereof is always changed into a red powder, which is fixt in the fire here made use of ; but the weight of the lead always remain'd the same.

5. He made the same process with an amalgam of 3 ounces of mercury and one of good tin ; which he expos'd to the same degree of heat for the same time ; and afterwards distill'd in the same manner in a glas's retort with the same fire : The success was, that from the receiver he had 2 ounces and 4 drachms of mercury : At the bottom of the retort was a powder, one part of which was fine, and consisted of a little fixed mercury ; the other, coarser, black, and compos'd of minute particles like tin. Nay, a little mercury still adher'd to the neck of the

retort,

stort, which in all weigh'd 2 drachms and 5 grains. At the bottom was a solid mass of tin weighing 1 ounce 1 drachm and 5 grains: There was a waste of 46 grains, the reasons of which have been already assign'd.

It appears by this process, that mercury cannot be extracted from tin; but 3 drachms with 14 grains (that is, better than a seventh part of mercury) were united with the tin, and so well fixed, that they could not be separated therefrom by a continued fire of 4 hours, whereby the sand was ignited. In *Nov. lumin. Chem. tractat. IX.* it is said; 'but you cannot be ignorant of the great affinity between *Saturn* and *Luna*, in the middle of which is placed *Sol*; as also between *Jupiter* and *Mercury*, in the middle of which is likewise placed *Sol*.'

6. He pour'd 10 ounces of mercury, after heating it well, into 2 ounces of the best tin, melted in a clean iron ladle. He ground the whole into an uniform amalgam, which he put very warm and dry into a clean and warm glass bottle, which he afterwards stopt up tight, and put into a wooden box; this he set to the stamper of a fulling mill, that was continually going almost day and night from the 30th of Nov. 1732, till the 9th of January, 1735. Then he took away the bottle, which was entire, and at the bottom he found running mercury; and after it had stood for some days, there was found in the upper part a somewhat hard amalgam; it weigh'd in all 12 ounces: He distill'd 11 ounces, 7 drachms of this amalgam in a luted glass retort with a naked fire, still heighten'd to the end, and till the retort was quite ignited for 2 hours. No greater quantity of mercury came over than was put in, which was very fluid, and the bottom remain'd a mass of tin fixed to the glass, with a little dirty matter, foliated, as it were. This mass was fusible, like tin, in a moderate fire; and then its surface, expos'd to the air, was tinged with various colours. The mass of tin weigh'd one ounce, 6 drachms and  $\frac{1}{2}$ ; and there still remain'd a small quantity of the dirty matter already mention'd. It is, therefore, certain, that by a continu'd motion, mercury cannot dissolve tin in the manner mercury may be extracted by distillation by the hottest fire.

*Scholium.* What the Dr. observed remarkable in these processes was, that the mercury, separated by distillation from lead or tin, was exceeding liquid; and that by shaking it in a clean white glazed earthen dish, it would in a short time sink in its surface, and there leave an exceeding black spot, closely sticking to it. As soon as the Dr. had wiped off this spot with a clean

clean and very dry paper, there was formed another spot, and immediately at several times others. This made him apt to think, that it was owing to the unctuous part of the metal which in distillation passed with the mercury, and was then separated from the surface to which it adher'd. In order to be assur'd of this, he spread the mercury upon very clean and dry white paper, where it left a slight black tract, wherever it pass'd; the surface of this mercury was otherwise always cover'd with a very thin pellicle, that appear'd like fat: Therefore, tho' some particles of other metals may by repeated distillations of the mercury be united therewith, it will not follow from hence, that any particles are turned into mercury. He tried the same experiment with lead, that had been shaken in the same manner and for the same time: But when he was taking the bottle from the stamper of the fulling mill it happened to break, and the matter being lost, he could not finish the process.

These experiments may serve to throw some more light upon the nature of mercury.

*A partial Eclipse of the Moon observed at Wittemb  
Oct. 2. 1735. N. S. by M. Weidler. Phil. Trans. N° 44  
p. 359. Translated from the Latin.*

H. M. S. a. m. Europ. time.

- 44 30 The penumbra near *Schickardus*.
- 59 ○ The beginning of the eclipse.
- I 1 30 The shadow comes to *Schickardus*: Its edge rough and unequal. A little after, the moon overcast.
- I 15 ○ *Tycho* entirely immersed. The moon immediately again overcast.
- I 25 30 The obscur'd portion of the moon grows black, nor can the *maculae* be discern'd thro' the shadow with a 9 foot telescope.
- I 30 ○ The shadow comes to *Grimaldus*: now the spots are seen thro' the shadow.
- I 44 30 The shadow covers *Grimaldus* entirely: Now the darkened portion is reddish. And immediately the moon is again overcast.
- 2 25 30 The shadow receding touches *Lansbergius*. The edge is still rough.
- 2 44 ○ The shadow comes to *Gassendus*.
- 3 11 ○ *Tycho* begins to emerge.

H. M. S.

3 36 o The end of the eclipse above *Snellius*, the sky clear about the moon.

A shock of an Earthquake felt in Sussex on the 25th of October, 1734; by the Duke of Richmond. Phil. Trans. N° 444. p. 361.

ON the 25th of October, 1734, between 3 and 4 o'clock in the morning, there happen'd an extraordinary earthquake in *Sussex*: And what confirms his Grace in the opinion that there really was an earthquake, is, that almost every body agree in the same description, as to the sensation, the hour of its happening, and the perfect calm that was at that time. His Grace observes that the shock was vastly more felt towards the sea-side as at *Shoreham*, *Tarring*, *Goring*, *Arundel* and *Havant*. At his Grace's house of *Goodwood*, near 3 miles north of *Chichester*, and about 7 from the sea, it was not so perceivable as at *Chichester*, where it was still less so than by the sea-side. His Grace had not heard that there was the least touch of it felt in any parts of the vale on the north side of the *Downs*, which for the most part run east and west.

A farther Account of the same Earthquake at Havant in Sussex Oct. 25, 1734; by Dr. Edward Bayley. Phil. Trans. N° 444. p. 362.

OCT. 25, 1734, between 3 and 4 o'clock in the morning, an earthquake was felt at *Havant* in *Sussex*: The shock was so considerable, as to be observed by one or other in most houses of the town. The Dr. happen'd to be awake at that time, and he perceiv'd the bed shake under him with a quick tremulous motion, which continu'd about 2 or 3 seconds, and then ceas'd; and after a very short intermission was repeated in the same manner, and lasted about the same space of time, as near as he could guess. He was at first greatly surprised at so unusual a phenomenon; but upon a little recollection, he concluded it must be occasion'd by an earthquake; and he was soon confirmed in his conjecture by the concurrent observations of his neighbours, and afterwards by accounts of the same from several other places; in some of which it seemed to have been more violent than at *Havant*. Several persons in this last place affirm, they not only perceiv'd the shaking of their beds, but also the rocking of their houses, together with a rumbling noise of drawers, and the like moveable goods in their chambers and other

other rooms. A learned and ingenious Gentleman at *Havan* informed the Dr. that the motion of his bed appear'd to him like the tossing of a vessel when it crosses over a wave, the head and feet thereof rising and falling alternately several times; whereas the Dr's seemed rather to rock from side to side: But these contrary motions of the 2 beds are easily accounted for, by considering the different positions of them, his friend's bed standing directly east and west, and the Dr's north and south: For, supposing the undulatory motion, which the earth might have at that time, to be propagated from east to west, the same kind of motion which caus'd his friend's bed to rise up and down lengthways, must make the Dr's rock from side to side; as may be observed in 2 vessels sailing in contrary directions on the same waves of the sea; that which crosses the waves at right angles being tossed up and down end-ways; while the other, moving in a line parallel with the waves, will be rocked from side to side. What makes the Dr. the more inclined to think the progressive motion of this earthquake to have been from east to west, is, because it appears from the best accounts he had of it, that it was observed sooner east than westward, and likewise extended farther from east to west than north and south.

He thinks it may not be amiss to take notice of some remarkable phenomena, which happen'd before and after, as well as some other circumstances, which immediately attended this earthquake; most of them agreeing with those signs, which have been observ'd by the learned to precede or accompany former earthquakes in these and other parts of the world. It is observable, that there was more rain and wind for several months successively, than for many years before; especially from the beginning to the middle of this month, about which time it clear'd up, and the weather became suddenly very cold with frosty mornings, the wind blowing generally pretty hard from N. W. On the 23d of Oct. the cold abated considerably; it was cloudy but no rain that day. The 24th was calm all day, it rain'd most part of the afternoon, tho' the mercury stood at  $30^{\circ}$ . It continued very calm all night, and rain'd hard for some time before and after the earthquake happen'd; but it soon clear'd up, and a strong gale of wind, arose within half an hour, or as some said, within a quarter afterwards: It continued blowing hard all the forenoon. At 4 o'clock in the morning the Dr. observed the mercury continu'd at  $30$  inches  $\frac{1}{2}$ ; the spirit of wine at  $55^{\circ}$ , having risen about 5 degrees since the late cold weather.

*N. B.* The Dr's barometer and thermometer were both in  
the frame, and made by Mr. Hauksbee.

The circumstances related by his Grace the Duke of Richmond and by Dr. Bayley are confirmed by the united testimonies of several persons of veracity, who signed certificates of what they observed concerning this accident at Chichester and other places.

Mr. Boisdune of the parish of Funtington in the county of Sussex and several persons living in the city of Chichester, all agree that there was a manifest shock of an earthquake felt on Oct. 25 about a quarter before 4 in the morning, which lasted by fits some few seconds, about a quarter of a minute, or while one might tell 20, with a motion sensibly slow: For, most of the accounts concur in this particular, namely, that the chairs, screens, doors, chests of drawers and other moveables, were heard rattling; and one, that a bell rung of itself just before they felt the heaving of their beds; and that there was no wind stirring at that time, but that it rain'd, and the wind rose soon after.

Mr. Green, prebendary of Chichester, had informations of the same tremblings, attended with the same circumstances, being felt at Shoreham, Goreing, Tarring, Findon, Arundel-castle and Merton.

John Shaw, Thomas Dagly, and John Towner, all servants to the Duke of Richmond, felt the same at his seat, call'd Goodwood.

Mr. Jenkins, riding officer of the customs in the parish of West-Wittering, near Braglesbambay, in the county of Sussex, described the shock after the same manner: And he farther adds, that within half a quarter of a mile of his house, a young man, about 18 or 20 years of age, having been at the same time to fetch up a team of horses from grass, the horses were so sensible of something more than ordinary, that they jumped and seem'd very much affrighted, as they were coming home.

*A shock of an Earthquake, felt at Aynho in Northamptonshire October 10. 1731; by Mr. Jos. Wasse. Phil. Trans. N° 444. p. 367.*

A BOUT 4 in the morning Oct. 10. 1731, Mr. Wasse, Rector of Aynho in Northamptonshire, says, that his windows rattled, as if some body had been dancing over head: the concussion lasted about a minute; others thought it lasted

about two minutes: It alarm'd the neighbouring village *Bloxam*, four miles south-west from *Aynho*; *Barford*, five *Banbury* four miles west; *Aderbury*, a mile west: *Crowton* a mile to the east; and *Charleton* as much to the north. There was no notice taken of its progress south or south-east.

About a minute after, some of the town of *Aynho* saw great flash of lightning. In the morning the sky looked of a land colour: It was said that there was a former shock felt *October 8*, about three in the morning; and that the latter was preceded by a noise like distant thunder.

It is remarkable, that this shock at *Aynho* was perceiv'd to extend more from east to west, than from north to south which particular was likewise observ'd in the shock felt in *Sussex*, in 1734.

*The sequel of the Experiments on Mercury; by Dr. Boerhaave. Phil. Transl. N° 444. p. 368. Translated from the Latin.*

FROM the observations on mercury, *Phil. Transl.* N° 430, p. 145, and N° 443, p. 343. it appeared, that the nature of mercury is never changed, tho' surprisingl varied in appearance it should often seem to change into new forms. The Dr. now comes to rehearse some other processes he had made; whence a much greater constancy or immutability is evinced, and at the same time the nature of other metals will be shewn. The most ancient Alchemists, and who may justly be reckon'd the best, unanimously agree, that mercury is quick metal: But then at the same time they affirm, that when it is genuine and free of all impurities, it is so simple, as to be entirely the same in all its parts, and is capable of being divided into parts of a various nature. They moreover affirm, that upon that account it is imitable to every cause, and at the same time of so penetratin a nature, as to be able to dissolve all other things; and yet itself remain unchangable: And as they are plainly agreed in these things, so likewise in this, that it is never quite pure from its veins, but always tainted with a heterogeneous impurity, which, originally being concreted and hence growing up with it in a surprising manner, is intimately incorporated therewith. They regret that it is with the greatest labour it is freed of that impurity; because in the prime formation of the seed it is insinuated and almost indissolubly incorporated with its very principles of vegetation; and the imp.

impurity they call'd sulphur ; in respect of which alone they discover'd quick-silver mutable ; and this alone they blame as what hinders its subtle penetrating quality by obstructing the peculiar edge of mercury ; and what makes it unite with adventitious matter. But should an ingenious and lucky artist by some secret method free this mercury from all its congenial impurity, it woud be no longer changeable, it would acquire a degree of subtility, by which it would pervade all other things ; would not mix with any thing in nature, but obstinately retain the strictest purity. But how surprising is its nature ! It concocts crude metals, perfects the baser ones, readily attenuates and resolves all other bodies, and turns them into their radical moisture ; and thus it is justly cried up as the chief instrument in medical and chemical arcana's. The adepts, it is true, tell us, that it resembles fire, which remaining unchangeable itself, changes every thing else : and dividing and uniting every other thing, remains itself untouched and intirely free.

By such tempting promises chemists were incited to find out a method of freeing mercury from this impurity, in order to have it pure and simple : And the wisest of them thought it was to be burnt out by fire alone ; because fire is the sole purifier of metals : Hence arose the distillation of mercury in clean close glasses ; and this so often repeated, till the whole was turn'd into a red, shining powder. But urging this powder with the strongest degree of fire in clean glasses, they again recover their pristine mercury ; which they mistakenly took for purified, since by the new action of fire it suffers itself to be again reduced into a similar red, and shining powder. And the greatest masters openly deny that quick-silver duly purified and defecated by art, can ever by the action of fire be brought into a powder, even if the process be continued to eternity. And here perhaps it may be proper to peruse what has been said *Phil. Trans. N° 430*, about 511 distillations of the same mercury in glais vessels.

But it is scarce credible, that its depuration can be obtain'd by such a method ; and possibly there was another method of working by which this was to be done : And the chief Masters in the art do plainly enjoin a different method : For, they say that this depuration is procured, while the nucleus of the mercury is detained by the purest bodies, which from their near affinity with it, do closely and indissolubly

lubly unite therewith : But gold and silver are pure, fixed metals, and very like genuine mercury, either if we regard their origin or their matter. They hold that it hence follows if mercury be mixt with a perfect metal, and by means of fire be again separated therefrom in glass vessels close stoppt, that the part of the pure metal will take in the mercury, and at the same time separate the impure from the pure part : The Dr. had a mind to try what truth was in this assertion, by setting about a laborious process, the success of which was as follows.

The Dr. had at the bank at *Amsterdam* two ounces and  $\frac{1}{2}$  of the purest gold, that could be procured by Assayers art ; he divided it into five small masses that weigh'd  $\frac{1}{2}$  an ounce each. He put them all into a clean glass retort, and poured 25 ounces of pure mercury that had been once distilled before ; half the mercury came over from the gold, which lay under it at the bottom of the retort. Having thus finished the process, there came over 13 ounces of mercury into the receiver : At the bottom of the vessel the gold was now entirely dissolv'd in the mercury, in the form of a perfect white mixt, call'd an amalgam : Whence it appears, that gold is dissolv'd by the heat alone of boiling mercury ; and this seems to be the best method of mixing these two together, call'd by artists *Amalgamating*. After drying well the quicksilver that came over, he return'd it upon the remainder in the retort ; and he again brought over by the fire an equal quantity of mercury, which after drying he poured afresh upon the remainder : And this he repeated 50 times. At last there came over pure mercury : In a glas mortar he ground with a glas pestle the black amalgam that remain'd at the bottom of the retort, and the water he poured thereon became muddy, he wash'd it with pure water, which again became muddy upon grinding. This he caused to do for 13 days, when the water was no longer muddy, but the amalgam shone bright, and the water remain'd clear. The powder, prepar'd by grinding and washing, which was of a dark colour, and of a horrid metallic taste, when dried well, weigh'd 83 grains, the mercury and gold weigh'd 26 ounces, 7 drachms ; there were seven grains lost ; three drachms and  $\frac{1}{2}$  in 50 processes. This happen'd partly by the mercury evaporating, and partly by its adhering to the filtering paper, by which it was dried from the water, into which it was receiv'd in distillation.

He again treated this pure amalgam in the same manner other 50 times: And now the 50th time there came over pure mercury: At the bottom of the vessel there remained a dark amalgam; which after triture and lotion with water, in the manner above mentioned, for 13 days together, yielded 1 drachm, 44 grains of a clean, dark, dried powder: And then the pure amalgam, together with the mercury, weigh'd 26 ounces, 4 drachms: By these 50 operations he lost 1 drachm, 16 grains.

He again caus'd distil for 50 times in the same manner this depurated amalgam: And there came over pure mercury; and at the bottom of the retort there was a reddish amalgam, which ground and washed with water as before, for 14 days, yielded 1 drachm, 11 grains of a dark powder. He added the mercury that came over to the pure amalgam, which together weigh'd 26 ounces, five drachms 24 grains: But while he was pouring off the amalgam, there stuck some of it to the bottom of the retort; so that he could not compute the waste.

The depurated amalgam again treated 50 times in the same manner, as by distillation, triture, and lotion for 14 days, yielded a dark powder, that weigh'd one drachm and  $\frac{1}{2}$  and four grains. The most shining amalgam, mixt with the pure mercury that came over, weigh'd together 25 ounces, two drachms, 46 grains after 200 distillations.

He urged this amalgam 50 times as before; and afterwards grinding it anew with water for 16 days together, he got two drachms, one scruple, and 4 grains of a dark powder; the bright white amalgam, together with the mercury, weigh'd 25 ounces, one drachm, 46 grains.

Having gone through this laborious process he observ'd that after 250 distillations of mercury with gold, both of them yielded one ounce, five grains, of the above described powder; that there remained 25 ounces, one drachm, 46 grains of gold and mercury; and that there was lost, in the manner mentioned, one ounce, two drachms, and 9 grains.

The attentive consideration of these things made him with joy begin to suspect, that he now saw the so much desired method of purifying mercury, whose impurity probably lay concealed in that powder, which he sometimes thought to be a mere fetid, dirty sulphur, that stain'd the virgin purity of quicksilver, and he doubted whether now he did not see pure, after having undergone the action of fire and water.

But

But his joy was check'd upon recollecting how often his over-hasty hopes had vanished into smoke: Amidst these doubts he resolv'd not to rest, till he was certainly assur'd of the truth; he, therefore, caus'd distil over again 25 ounces, 1 drachm, 46 grains of that last and purest amalgam, always bringing over half of the mercury, and pouring it on again for 627 several times; and he ceased washing it any longer with water, in order to see the event. By this process the matter usually grew dark, so as at length to be almost black: Then he did over the glass in which it stood with a coating that could bear an open fire; and thus he urged the black amalgam, that was no longer wash'd, with so intense a fire, as that in 3 hours time the retort was entirely ignited; and there came over 20 ounces of the purest mercury; and afterwards breaking the vessel he found at the bottom 2 ounces and  $\frac{1}{2}$  of the brightest gold, without leaving any dreg at all behind.

He afterwards took 7 drachms, 57 grains of the powder of 250 distillations; and urged it with a very intense, open fire in a retort coated over, so as to ignite for some time: From this powder were recovered 7 drachms, 46 grains of the pure mercury; at the bottom of the retort remain'd, as he found 6 grains of a dark powder.

Upon weighing hydrostatically the quicksilver urged in this manner 877 times, he found it to pure water, as 13 and  $\frac{1}{2}$  to 1; so that its density was not changed, notwithstanding it underwent such a variety of operations, nor was it freed of any of its lighter parts. As the Dr. understood that his method of finding out the weights, mention'd *Phil. Trans.* N° 430. was suspected not to be sufficiently accurate, he now adds what follows from what was said above.

1. Gold dissolved by mercury, by repeated coction and triture, changed nothing of its pristine nature, lost nothing of its proper weight, and acquir'd nothing, as far as could be gather'd from the foregoing experiments.

2. Quicksilver, mixt with gold, and again separated from it by fire, has part of it turned into a dark, subtile, powder, of a horrid metallic, taste, and of a quite different nature from what it was before; and this always happens till 877 times yet it again returns, by a stronger degree of fire alone, to the same quicksilver it was before, with every quality observab. by art.

3. Fire therefore and gold do not by this means separate from quicksilver different parts, as sulphur, dregs, or any other thing

thing; but only change it in outward appearance, which is again recoverable, and so entirely the same, that its proper weight is in nowise changed.

4. Quicksilver and gold by the force of fire do immediately change the silver brightness of their amalgam into a dark and at length a black colour: But the restoring the silver brightness to the mercury, and the yellow brightness to the gold by a stronger degree of fire alone, shews that this colour does not infer any corruption or real change in the nature of the metals.

5. Yet if native mercury can possibly be depurated by gold and fire, according to the opinion of the ancients, this must be perform'd by some other process.

6. The hopes of fixing mercury with gold by the action of fire prove all abortive: Since after so much labour and length of time, there is not even a beginning towards it; the last distillation was performed as easily as the first.

7. Hence we have no confirmation of the opinion, that fire can concrete to metals or to mercury to the increase or generation of something metallic; or to the fixt stable change of the metal itself.

8. Great then is the constancy and simplicity of quicksilver and gold! If gold were originally quicksilver; is it not then truly said, that mercury either entirely evaporates in the fire, or remains entirely fixed therein.

9. The big promises of 2 great men in the profession about the dissolving of gold by triture, either with or without water, prove all vain: They declin'd the troublesome task, and were over hasty in making conclusions.

There remain'd one thing worth enquiry; whether mercury, distill'd so often from gold by the force of fire, had not deposited that property, by which it is turned by distillation into the powder, call'd precipitate *per se*? He, therefore, caus'd distil in a clean glass retort these 20 ounces of quicksilver, distill'd 877 times from gold, and that with so strong a fire, that no mercury at all remain'd in the retort after each distillation, and this he repeated 8 times. At the bottom of the retort he had 12 grains of a ruddy, sparkling, ponderous, mercurial precipitate, of a horrid metallic taste. The Dr. therefore was assur'd, that even this quality is not taken from the mercury by this laborious process.

*An improvement of the Diving Bell; by M. Triewald.* Phil. Trans. N° 444. p. 377.

**M.** *Triewald* having made trials with the diving bell and air barrels in several depths on the coast of the Baltic according to the ingenious improvement of Dr. *Halley*, made in 1716, but with some small additions, found by experience that no invention built upon any other principles than those of the *campana urinatoria*, can be of use in any considerable depths; or that the diver in any other invention whatever, can be a single moment safe. As to the many inconveniences that attend other inventions, he only mentions that of a water armour, in which the man is drowned in an instant, when such a machine receives the least leak: Whereas experience has shewn that the danger is not so great when such an accident happens to the diving bell; as to his knowledge it did once, when the diver was 12 fathom under water, and a pretty large hole was struck into the bell, by a boult of the wreck he went upon when the air rush'd out of the same with such violence as astonish'd the beholders by the excessive boiling on the surface of the water, but the man in the bell clapp'd his hand to the hole or leak, and gave a signal to be haul'd up; which was done with all the ease and safety, as if no such accident had happen'd the water having only risen about half a foot into the bell by this leak.

This same man had a worse accident beset him at another time, by the bell's rushing down at once about a fathom or more, by the carelessness of those that worked it; the blood gushing out of his nose and ears, he felt an intolerable pressure on his whole body; which shews, that when a man in a diving bell is slowly and gradually let down, he at such a time and by degrees respiring compres'd air, which by the lungs is forced into the blood, cannot feel the external pressure of highly compres'd air, nor of the water reaching some parts of his body a convenience no other invention can afford, where the diver is to draw his breath from air in its natural state.

*M. Triewald* has often with pleasure observ'd, that when he has caus'd the bell to stop, at 5 fathom depth, and the diver taking in the air contain'd in an air barrel, lower'd down a fathom deeper than the bell, without opening the cock for discharging the hot air; the water would, by the access of the air out of the barrel, be entirely, or to a very small matter expell'd out of the bell; and when the same was again lower'd

down 5 fath'm more, the same operation with another air barrel repeated, and the bell afterwards haul'd up, it was no small matter of delight to observe, that every fathom the bell came up, it would discharge itself of the superfluous air in a large quantity, which came up from the bottom of the bell, in bubbles, as big as ostrich eggs; and thus discharge of air continu'd, till the equilibrium of the air in the bell, and pressure of the water, were restor'd, and till the bell came above the surface of the water.

At other times he observed, when no air was by the way taken into the bell, but the same lower'd down the common way, and haul'd up again after some time, that the very instant when the bell should part with the surface of the water, the strength of two men more was requir'd at the capstan at that time, than before and after the bell hung freely in the air: From whence he presumes it plainly appears, that the air, which passes thro' the lungs of a living creature, loses its elasticity; and that the lungs of a man make a kind of a *vacuum* in the bell; for which reason the diver feels at the very instant, when the bell parts with the water, a very smart pressure in his ears.

Tho' experience has thus taught, that no invention is more safe and useful than the *campana urinatoria*, with the ingenious improvements of Dr. Halley; yet M. Triewald has likewise found, that this invention is not to be made use of without considerable charge; it requiring a large vessel, and number of hands, to work and manage such a large diving bell, together with the air barrels and their respective weights for sinking: That the expences therefore might be lessen'd; and that the diving bell, nevertheless might answer all the intents and purposes of Dr. Halley's, M. Triewald has made the following improvement on it.

The diving bell A B (Fig. 2. Plate VIII.) M. Triewald us'd to be made of copper, and he reduced the same to a very small compass in regard to Dr. Halley's, as may be seen by the scale under the draught; by which means it is easily managed by 2 hands: Yet he presumes that a diver may live in the same as long a time, and with as much ease, at a very considerable depth of water, as in a bell of twice its capacity; because that tho' a man in a large bell has undoubtedly more air than a less; and consequently, should be able to subsist a great while longer on a large than on a small quantity of air; yet since his head is generally in the upper part of the bell, where the hot air takes up its residence, he receives very little or no

benefit of the air under his chin or breast, tho' never so fit for respiration; which air, nevertheless, in the lower parts of the bell will remain cool a long time after he has been in the bell and has with difficulty drawn his breath; as is very obvious to any one who has been in a *German Bagnio*, and such as are used in *Sweden*; where in a single room all the degrees of heat are to be felt, by means of a contrivance like stairs to the very top of the cieling: A man, when he places himself on the uppermost step, will feel an excessive heat; so that any body not very much us'd to it cannot endure the same, nor draw his breath, but faint away: Whereas on the first, second, and third steps from the floor, the heat is very moderate; nay, sometimes the air near the floor is pretty cool; when at the same time near the cieling the heat is intolerable.

To obviate this inconveniency he caus'd a spiral tube of copper, *b, c*, to be placed close to the inside of the bell, and fix'd in such manner that the same may be taken out and cleans'd with pleasure, and with ease; and at the same time not encumber the diver, when he is in the bell: At the upper end of this tube *b*, a flexible leather tube is join'd 2 foot long, at the end of which is a turned ivory mouth-piece, which the diver (soon as he perceives the air to grow hot in the top of the bell) keeps constantly in his mouth; which may be done by means of the flexible tube in whatever posture he is in, as standing, sitting, bending his head, &c. and all the while he draws his breath thro' the abovementioned tube, and the air from *c*; by which contrivance he not only draws continually cool and fresh air as long as any is in the bell, but occasions at the same time a circulation, which is so necessary to the very being of air (especially in a compress'd state) and its preservation for the use of animals; a thing he has found of great consequence; and much the more necessary, as any body who has been in a diving bell for a long time, without any new supplies of air, and has been reduced to the last extremity of breathing in the same, will agree, that when at such a time the bell begins to be haul'd up and by that means the compressed air is allow'd to expand again, it is put into motion never so little, the man receives a new life as it were, and incredible comfort and ease.

Again, when in coalpits, levels are drove in the coal or the dykes, the air of the level or adits growing hot by the breath and sweat of the hewers and workmen for the want of a circulation of the air; M. *Triewald* has found it to be an excellent remedy, to place, along the side of the drift or adit, a square

wooden box, open at both ends, laid from the place where the air is cool and good, and reaching, by joining one box close to another, as far as where the work is carried on. And thus by this simple contrivance, a circulation of air is obtain'd, and sometimes to that degree, that when a candle is held at the end of the box, where the cool air enters, the flame is driven out by the current of cold air entering and circulating thro' the box.

By this experiment he is apt to think, that tho' the diver should not keep the end of the flexible tube in his mouth, which he may do with all the ease in the world, yet that the air would circulate thro' the copper tube, and he receive no small benefit by it: DDDD are the weights for sinking the bell, contriv'd in such manner as with great ease to be hook'd on the same hanging on the cable. The iron plate E, fixt to the chains FFF, serves the diver to stand upon, when he is at work.

The bell is very well tinn'd on the inside; and as in all rivers, and the coasts of the *Baltic*, the water is exceeding clear and limpid; because there is no ebb and flood, M. *Triewald* has placed 3 strong convex lens's GGG: By these means the diver can not only see what is under him; but likewise on all sides at a good distance.

These glasses have strong copper lids, HHHH, like snuff boxes; which lids are shut, when there is no occasion to discover any objects in the bottom of the sea, and serve to preserve the glasses from being broken.

*A Description of the Moose-deer of New England, and a sort of Stag in Virginia; together with some Remarks on Mr. Ray's Description of the flying Squirrel of America; by Mr. Samuel Dale.* Phil. Transl. N° 444. p. 384.

THE moose-deer has been mention'd by several authors; but their accounts have generally been so very imperfect that little satisfaction hath thereby been given to the curious enquirers into natural history. The first mention that Mr. *Dale* makes of this animal is by Mr. *Josselyn*, in a little tract, call'd *New England's rarities*; where p. 19: he writes, 'that it is a goodly creature, some of which being 12 foot high, their horns exceeding fair, with broad palms; some being 2 fathoms from the top of one horn to the other.' Much to the same purpose is the account he gives of this animal in another book of his, called *2 voyages to New England*, where p. 88 he says, 'that the moose or elke is a creature, or rather a

monster of superfluity, when full grown, being many times bigger than an English ox.' What *Neal*, in his *History of New England* Vol. II. p. 573, hath of this animal, call'd by him the *mose*, is copied from the aforesaid *Josselyn*. The best and fullest account of this animal was sent by Mr. *Dudley*; and publish'd *Phil. Trans.* N° 368. p. 165, where he makes them to be of 2 sorts, viz. the common light grey moose, call'd by the *Indians*, *Wampoose*; and the large or black moose. As to the grey moose, Mr. *Dale* takes it to be no other than that Mr. *John Clayton*, in his account of the *Virginia quadrupeds* publish'd in *Phil. Trans.* N° 210. p. 122, calls the elke which in the *Memoirs for a Natural History of animals*, publish'd at *Paris* and english'd by Mr. *Pitfield*, p. 167, is call'd by the name of the stag of *Canada*, of which Mr. *Dale* has seen a single horn, sent by Mr. *Mark Catesby* from *Virginia* by the name of an elke's horn, and was in all respects like those of our red deer or stags, only larger, weighing about 12 pounds averdupois; and from the burr to the tip measur'd by a string about 6 foot high. Mr. *Dudley* writes that his grey moose is likeliest the ordinary deer; that they spring like them and herd together sometimes to the number of 30 in a company. But whether he means the red, the *Virginian*, or the fallow deer, is uncertain, he having said nothing of their horns which was necessary to distinguish them. The black moose accounted by all, that have hitherto writ of it, a very large creature. The above-mention'd Mr. *Josselyn* makes it many times bigger than an ox; and Mr. *Dudley* writes, that the hunters have found a buck or stag-moose 14 spans high from the withers; which at 9 inches to the span, is 10 foot and  $\frac{1}{2}$ ; and that a doe or hind of the fourth year, kill'd by a Gentleman near *Boston*, wanted but one inch of 7 foot in height. The stag, buck, or male of this kind hath a palmed horn, not like that of our common or fallow deer, but the palm is much longer, and more like that of the *German* elke; from whence it differs, in that the moose hath a branched brow antler between the burr and the palm, which the *German* elke hath not.

Fig. 3. Plate VIII. represents the head, or rather the atti (as it is called in heraldry) of a black moose-deer, which was sent Mr. *Dale* from *New England*; the dimensions of which are, as follows:

A	B	56 inches
C	A	34
C	E	31
C	D	34
D	H	30
F	G	9 $\frac{1}{2}$
F	I	14
K	L	7

The horn of this *New-England* black moose agrees not in figure with either of those mentioned in *Phil. Trans.* N° 227. p. 489. and N° 394. p. 123, found fossil in *Ireland*; the last of which Mr. *Kelley* writes, that for want of another name, they call'd them *elks-horns*. Mr. *Dale* suspects that those horns Mr. *Ray* mentions in his *Synopsis methodica animalium quadruped.* to have seen with Mr. *Holney*, an apothecary at *Lewis* in *Suffex*, as also in divers *Museums*, were not the horns of this black or *American* moose, but of the *German* elke; because that inquisitive gentleman takes no notice of any brow-antlers they had, which Mr. *Dale* thinks was too notorious to have escaped his obłervation had there been any such.

As to the number of young ones, or calves, which the moose brings forth at a time, authors vary: For, Mr. *Dudley* saith, that they bring forth but two: But *Joffelyn* in his two *Voyages*, p. 89; and from him *Neal*, that they bring forth three; and that they do not go so long pregnant, as our hinds, by two months. What these two last mentioned authors write as to their casting their calves a mile distant from each other, doth not seem probable; nor does Mr. *Dale* find, that *Neal*, in his description of this creature, makes any mention of their having a long tail, tho' charged so by Mr. *Dudley*, who likewise omits the brow-antlers in his description of their-horns.

There is another beast of the deer kind, which though very common in *Virginia*, and undoubtedly, in other of the northern provinces of *America*, yet so far as Mr. *Dale* knows is not described by any author. Mr. *Beverly* in his present state of *Virginia* mentions both elke and deer in that country, but doth not describe either.

But by what Mr. *Dale* receiv'd from Mr. *Catesby*, the first should be the *Canada* stag, and the other, the deer here mentioned. Mr. *Clayton* likewise mentions the elke, which he

he saith are beyond the inhabited parts, and are the same with Mr. Beverley's; as also the deer of which he saith there are abundance, yet he doth not describe them, but calls them red deer, though they are not the same with what we here call by that name, but of those that follow.

That which Mr. Dale takes for the undescribed deer, is of the stag-kind, having round horns like them, not spreading out as in the stag or red deer, but meeting nearer together at their tips, and bending forwards over the face of the animal; the brow-antlers are not crooked, standing forwards, but streight and upright, as represented Fig 4. the dimensions of which are as follows.

a b	11	inches
a cb	20	
a d	12	$\frac{1}{2}$
d f	12	$\frac{1}{2}$
d e	11	
g h	2	$\frac{3}{4}$

The skin of this deer is of a sand colour, with some black hairs intermix'd, and while young spotted all over with white spots, like some sorts of fallow deer; being likewise about their size when full grown. The *Dama Virginiana Raii* *Synop. Animal. quadruped.* p. 86. which was formerly in St. James's-Park, seems to be different from this; if Mr. Willoughby was not led into a mistake in taking it to be of the palmate kind, by only seeing it when the horns were shed: Perhaps this last of Mr. Ray may be the maurouse of Josselyn's *Voyages*, p. 91. which he says is like the moose, only his horns are but small, and the creature about the size of a stag; but his description is too short to be satisfactory.

There are other sorts of deer mentioned by Mr. Josselyn in his last quoted book, p. 87. as natives of that country, as the buck, stag and rain-deer: But whether they are the same with those call'd by the same names in Europe, Mr. Dale cannot determine; the descriptions of them being omitted. Mr. Josselyn likewise mentions as another sort of American deer, an animal call'd a maccari, caribbo, or po-hano: But by the account he gives, it seems to be a fiction; no such animal being, Mr. Dale thinks, in *rerum natura*.

Mr. Ray in his *Synop. quad.* p. 215, rather refers the *Sciurus Amerioanus volans* to the mouse than to the squirrel kind, because their tails are broad and plain, and not turn'd over their backs when they sit; which mistake may, probably, arise from only seeing the skin of one dead, when the hair of their tails had been eaten off by mites: For, in one Mr. Dale saw alive, which was brought over from *Virginia*, the tail was hairy, as in others of the squirrel kind, tho' rather thinner; and it turned over the back as in other squirrels.

Dr. Mortimer observes, that the same species of flying squirrels hath been found in *Poland*; a description of which together with an accurate Fig. is given by M. Klein, *Phil. Transf.* N° 427.

And that as to the large horns found fossile in *Ireland*; he has taken particular notice (in several he saw) besides the main horns being palmated, that the brow-antlers are so likewise; a circumstance peculiar to the rain-deer species, being of great service to them in removing the snow, in order to get at the grass or moss underneath, which is their chief subsistence in *Lapland*.

*An Attempt to explain the Phenomenon of the Horizontal Moon appearing bigger than when elevated several Degrees above the Horizon, supported by an Experiment; by Dr. Desaguliers.* Phil. Transl. N° 444. p. 390.

THIS apparent increase of the moon's diameter (which a telescope with a micrometer shews to be only apparent) is owing to the following early prejudice we have imbibed from children.

When we look at the sky towards the zenith, we imagine it to be much nearer to us, than when we look at it towards the horizon: So that it does not appear spherical; according to the vertical section E F G H I [Fig. 5. Plate VIII.] but elliptical, according to the section e F g h i. The sky thus seen strikes the eye in the same manner as the long arch'd roof of the isle of a cathedral church, or the cieling of a long room.

This being premis'd: Let us consider the eye at C (Fig. 5.) upon the surface of the earth; and imagine C at the surface to coincide with K at the centre; to avoid taking into consideration that the moon is really farther from the eye when in the horizon, than when it is some degrees high. Now when the moon is at G, we consider it as at g, not much farther

farther than G; But when it is at H, we imagine it to be at b, almost as far again. While, therefore, it subtends the same angle nearly as it did before, we imagine it to be so much bigger, as the distance seems to us to be increas'd.

To illustrate this, the Dr. contriv'd the following experiment:

He took two candles A B, C D, (Fig. 6.) of equal height and bigness; and having placed A B at the distance of six or eight foot from the eye, he placed C D at double that distance; then causing any unprejudiced person to look at the candles, and asking which was the biggest. The spectator answer'd, they were both of a bigness; and that they appear'd so, because he allow'd for the greater distance of C D; and this likewise appeared to him when he look'd through a small hole. Then desiring the spectator to shut his eyes for a little, the Dr. took away the candle C D, and placed the candle E F close by the candle A B; and tho' it was as short again as the others, and as small again in diameter, the spectator, when he opened his eyes, thought he saw the same candles as before. Whence it is to be concluded, that when an object is thought to be twice as far from the eye as before, we think it to be twice as big, though it subtends but the same angle.— And this is the case of the moon, which appears to us as big again; when we suppose it as far again, though it subtends but the same angle.

The difference of distance of the moon in *perigee* and *apogee*, will account for the different bigness of the horizontal moon at different times, adding likewise the consideration of the faintness, which vapours sometimes throw on the appearance.

*An Explication of the preceding Experiment to account for the appearance of the horizontal Moon; by the same*  
Phil. Trans. N° 444. p. 392.

**D**R. Desaguliers made an experiment with three ivory balls for confirmation of what he had advanced, namely, that the deception arises from our judging the horizontal moon to be much farther than it is, which is as follows:

1. Two equal ivory balls (Fig. 7. Plate VIII.) were set one beyond the other in respect of the eye at E; namely A B at 20 foot distance from the eye, and C D at 40.

2. It is certain by the rules of optics, that the eye at E or F shall see the ball C D under an angle, but half as big as it sees the ball A B; that is, that the ball C D must appear no bigger than the ball o p placed by the side of A B.

3. But when looking at the two balls with the naked eye in an open room, we consider that C D is as far again from the eye as A B, we judge it to be as big as A B, (as it really is) notwithstanding it subtends an angle but of half the bigness.

4. Now if unknown to the spectator, or while he turns his back, the ball C D be taken away, and another ball o p of half the diameter be placed in the same line, but as near again, at the side of A B, the spectator thinking this last ball to be at the place of C D, must judge it to be as big as C D; because it subtends the very same angle as C D did before.

It therefore follows, that if a ball be imagined to be as far again as it really is, we make such an allowance for that imagined distance, that we judge it to be as big again as it is, notwithstanding that the angle, under which we see it, is no greater than when we look at it knowing its real distance.

For this reason the moon looks bigger in the horizon, and nearer it, than at a considerable height, or at the zenith; because it being a common prejudice to imagine that part of the sky much nearer to us which is at the zenith, than that part towards the horizon: When we see the moon at the horizon, we suppose it much farther; therefore, as it subtends the same angle, or nearly the same, as when at the zenith, we imagine it so much bigger, as we suppose its distance greater.

The reason why this experiment is hard to make is, because the light from the ball o p is too strongly reflected on account of its nearness: But if we could give it so little light as to look no brighter than the ball C D it would deceive every body. The Dr. made the experiment so as to deceive such as were not very long sighted: But he owns he found it very hard to deceive those who see at a great distance; tho' they would all be deceiv'd, if the distances were of 300 or 400 foot. Now in the case of the moon, the deception is help'd; because the vapours, through which we see it when it is low, take away of its brightness; and therefore have the same

same effect as would, or does happen in the experiment when the light of the ball *o p* strikes the eye no stronger than the light of the ball *C D*.

*Some Observations on a Man and Woman bit by Vipers;*  
Dr. Atwell. Phil. Transl. N° 444. p. 394.

July 3. 1734. THE same man, who had been formerly bit by a viper in the presence of several members of the Royal Society, was again bit in the presence of several others besides Dr. Atwell, in the publick hall of Exeter College at Oxford. He receiv'd two punctures in the wrist, a little above the thumb; the blood issued, and more venom lay upon the orifices than could be immediately imbibed. He complained in about half an hour's time that the poison was got up to his shoulder, and was entering his body. But notwithstanding this, he was not suffered to apply his remedy (*sallad oil*) till one hour and ten minutes after he was bitten; by which time he began to flushed and in a sweat, his hand swoln and discoloured.

Upon an application of his medicine, he found some abatement of his pain; but the swelling appear'd more sible, and spread itself farther into his arm. In about a quarter of an hour the man sunk under the table, and complain'd of violent pain in his back and bowels, nor could bear to be mov'd. At last, his pulse failing, his jaw being fallen, his countenance changed, and eyes fixt, he was stretch'd upon the table, and the medicine applied to belly, and stomach. Soon after which, recovering a little, began to vomit, and he brought up more than a quart of phlegm and bile. In this condition he lay for more than an hour, and then was remov'd into the Doctor's lodgings; where he was seiz'd again with a fit of vomiting, and likewise purging, and continued so till midnight. The Doctor kept him in his house upwards of an hour in hopes of his growing better; but his disorder still continuing, and he being weak and feeble even to stand, the Doctor sent him home in a chair to his own lodgings, where he was put into bed, and after midnight fell asleep, and waked next morning perfectly well, only that his arm was still swoln, and the skin puffed, as if it had been dropical. His arm was bound in papers dipt in his own medicine (*sallad-oil*) and this was all, as far as the Doctor could observe or learn, that was applied to it.

The same day two young chickens were bit ; one died in two hours, and the other in four hours time. A third was bit three times ; and then had the medicine applied ; but it died at the end of 10 hours. The flesh of this last was grown very black, and there was much extravasated lymph between it and the skin, which stunk intolerably : But the Doctor could not perceive, that the viscera were at all discolour'd.

July 4. Another fowl, half grown, was bit in two places, and the medicine was applied ; in half an hour after, the fowl eat and seem'd much recover'd, but was dead in 14 hours time.

July 6. Two half grown cocks were bit ; the first was bit at once, yet violently, and turned black immediately. It had the medicine applied, eat afterwards, and seem'd pretty well ; yet died in 20 hours. The other was bit two or three times, but hardly wounded, and not half so much discolour'd as the former : The wound was bath'd with viper-oil, but the fowl died in a little more than two hours.

July 8. Two young pigeons were bit, the one had viper-oil applied immediately, but it sicken'd and died in four hours : The other had oil-olive applied, and recover'd perfectly : The flesh beginning to return to its natural colour in about an hour's time.

July 17. The woman was bit in the publick hall of *Braunfse-College*, in the presence of Dr. *Frampton*, Dr. *Frewen*, and several other physicians. It had been suspected, that they play'd some tricks with their vipers, and made them bend their rage and venom beforehand : To obviate which physician of the company had provided some fresh vipers, which he had caught himself a day or two before, and kept in his own custody till that time. The woman was bit twice by one of these, and receiv'd three wounds ; one in the thumb, and two in the fore finger : Her hand was soon swoln and spotted, and her finger turn'd black. After 23 minutes he applied the medicine to her hand, but no farther than the swelling went, by which Dr. *Arwell* suspects the following malice was in some measure occasion'd. She walk'd home very well in appearance. But in about three hours after she was receiv'd, she grew very sick and was in great pain ; and was seiz'd with vomiting, purging, fainting fits, which continued upon her all night ; insomuch that the people in the house despair'd of her life : Nor had she any sleep

till noon the day following. The Dr. saw her about 6 that evening, when she awaked, he found her very well in spirits, but complaining of most acute pains in her finger. Her arm, shoulder, back, and breast, on that side, were much swoln and inflamed : All those parts thus affected were bound up in papers soak'd in the medicine. After this there appear'd upon her finger 2 large bladders, full of a black corrupt matter ; and this not only upon the wound, but one of them was upon a part of the finger distant from it. She could not be persuaded to open them, which the Dr. believes would have eas'd her very much.

*July 20.* the swelling was considerably abated, and almost reduced entirely into her hand, which began to pit : But she complained still of her finger ; and could hardly endure to have it dress'd with fresh papers. She continu'd in bed till the 22d, for the sake of keeping her hand in a more easy posture ; and then she came abroad.

The same day that the woman was bit, they caus'd a fowl to be bit ; but the wound was not deep, and little more than a scratch. Nothing was applied to it, and it died in 24 hours.

A large puppy was bit the same day 3 times in the head, had the medicine applied, but it died in about an hour.

As it was known that the man and woman kept themselves fasting on those days when the experiment was to be tried upon them : This occasion'd a suspicion that they might take some antidote to prepare their bodies ; for which reason Dr. Arwell order'd the man to bring him some vipers after dinner, under pretence of making some farther experiments on dogs ; providing at the same time some fresh vipers without his knowledge and then the Dr. propos'd to him to be bit by one of them, and apply his medicine immediately. His hand was besmear'd with the medicine in applying it to a young dog, on which the experiment was just made. Two vipers were tried on the man, but neither would bite him : One of them attempted it severa times, and spilt his venom, but always caught back his head again, as if there had been something offensive in the hand. Upon this, suspecting that the smell of the medicine might occasion it, he was made wash his hand, after which another viper bit him immediately : But whether this conjecture was righ or not must depend upon farther trial. The man receiv'd the bite on the joint of the thumb, and the blood issu'd at the 2 orifices. He applied the medicine directly : The thumb soon appeared black, the hand was swoln, and the flesh pitted immedately.

mediately. He drank a mug of ale after it, and then went home to bed. His whole arm was swoln; but he was so well that he went 6 miles out of town, and came home again in the evening. The Dr. saw him again, when the swelling was almost gone above the elbow, but the flesh pitted below: The wound had blifter'd, but the bladders were fill'd with a water, and not any thing of that black matter, which appear'd on the woman's finger.

A young dog, mention'd before, was caus'd to be bit the same day, and the medicine applied: Another dog was bit 3 times in the nose, and nothing applied: Both were much swoln, but very likely to live.

The teeth of a viper's head cut off 24 hours before, was likewise thrust into the flesh of a fowl, which turned black immediately, but the fowl perfectly recover'd without any application.

*Some electrical Experiments intended to be communicated to the Royal Society; by Mr. Stephen Gray, and taken from his Mouth the Day before he died; by Dr. Mortimer. Phil. Trans. N° 444. p. 400.*

**E**xp. I. **T**AKE a small iron globe of an inch or an inch and a half in diameter, which set on the middle of a cake of rosin of about 7 or 8 inches diameter, having first excited the cake by gently rubbing it, clapping it 3 or 4 times with the hands, or warming it a little before the fire: Then fasten a light body, as a small piece of cork, or pith of alder to an exceeding fine thread, 5 or 6 inches long, which hold between your finger and thumb, exactly over the globe, at such a height, that the cork, or other light body, may hang down about the middle of the globe: This light body will of itself begin to move round the iron globe, and that constantly from west to east, being the same direction which the planets have in their orbits round the sun. If the cake of rosin be circular, and the iron globe placed exactly in the centre of it, then the light body will describe an orbit round the iron globe, which will be a circle: But if the iron globe be placed at any distance from the center of the circular cake, then the light body will describe an elliptical orbit, which will have the same eccentricity, as the distance of the globe from the centre of the cake.

If the cake of rosin be of an elliptic form, and the iron globe be placed in the centre thereof, the light body will describe

scribe an elliptical orbit, of the same eccentricity as the form of the cake.

If the iron globe be placed in or near one of the focus's of the elliptic cake, the light body will move much swifter in the apogean than in the perigean part of the orbit, contrary to what is observ'd of the planets.

*Exp. 2.* Take the same or such another iron globe, and having fasten'd it on an iron pedestal about an inch high, set it on a table; then set round it a glass hoop, or portion of a hollow glass cylinder of 7 or 8 inches diameter, and 2 or 3 inches high: This hoop must be first excited by warming and gently rubbing it; then hold the light body suspended as in the first experiment, and it will of itself move round the iron globe from west to east in a circular orbit, if the hoop be circular and the globe stand over the centre thereof; but in an elliptic orbit, with the same eccentricity, if the globe does not stand in the centre of the hoop, as in the first experiment, when the globe does not stand on the centre of the cake.

*Exp. 3.* This same iron globe being set on the bare table, without either the cake of rosin or glass hoop, the small light body being suspended as in *Exp. 1, 2,* will make revolutions round it, but slower and nearer to it than when it is placed upon a cake of rosin, or within a glass-hoop.

Mr. Gray had not found that these experiments would succeed, if the thread, by which the light body was suspended, was supported by any other thing than a human hand: But he imagin'd it might happen the same, if the thread should be supported or fasten'd to any animal substance whatever; and he intended to have tried the foot of a chicken, a piece of raw flesh, or the like.

Mr. Gray thought to explain the foregoing particular by the following odd phenomenon, of which he assur'd Dr. Mortimer he was very certain, having often observed it; viz. if a man resting his elbows on his knees, places his hands at some small distance from each other, they will gradually accede to each other, without any will or intention of the man to bring them together; and they will again recede of themselves. In like manner the hand will be attracted by the body; or the face of a man, if he stand near a wall, will be attracted to the wall, and be again repell'd by it.

Mr. Gray told the Dr. he had thought of these experiments only a very short time before his falling sick, that he had no

tried

tried them with variety of bodies, but that from what he had already seen of them, which struck him with new surprize every time he repeated them, he hoped, if God would spare his life but a little longer, he should, from what these phenomena point out, bring his electrical experiments to the greatest perfection; and he did not doubt but in a short time he would be able to astonish the world with a new sort of *planetarium* never before thought of; and that from these experiments might be established a certain theory for accounting for the motions of the grand *planetarium* of the universe.

In trying these experiments since Mr. Gray's death, the Dr. found that the small light body will make revolutions round a body of various shapes and substances, as well as round the iron globe, if set on the cake of rosin. Thus he tried with a globe of black marble a silver sand-dish, a small chip box and a large cork. He observ'd that the cake, if nothing stood upon it, would in any part strongly attract the light body, as held suspended by the thread; but when the globe or other body was set upon it, the edges of the cake attracted the strongest; and so gradually the attraction seem'd as it approach'd the centre to become less, till at a certain distance it was changed into repulsion, which proceeded from the globe, or other body placed upon the cake, which very strongly repels the light body, unless it be held very near it, and then it attracts it strongly. While the light body is suspended, as in the foregoing experiments, if you approach the finger of the other hand near it, it will fly from the finger, or be very vigorously repell'd by it.

*Some thoughts on the Sun and Moon appearing bigger when near the Horizon than when near the Zenith; by Mr. James Logan. Phil. Trans. N° 444. p. 404.*

IT may, perhaps, be needless to add any thing in confirmation of Dr. Wallis's solution (vide *Phil. Trans.* N° 187.) of the sun and moon's appearing so much larger at rising or setting than when in a greater altitude; tho' some have very absurdly still gone on to account for it from vapours. It is true, indeed, that it is these vapours, or the atmosphere alone, that make those bodies, when very near the horizon, appear in a spheroidal form, by refracting, and thereby raising (to sight) the lower limb more than the upper, yet these can be no cause of the other phenomenon. The sun and moon, each subtending about half a degree, appear in the meridian of the breadth of 8 or

10 inches, to some eyes more, and to others less; and in the horizon to be 2 or 3 foot, more or less, according to the extent of ground they are seen over. But if one can have an opportunity as Mr. *Logan* frequently had at *Philadelphia*, of seeing the sun rise or set over a small eminence at the distance of a mile or two with tall trees on it, standing pretty close, as usual in woods without underwood, his body will then appear to be 10 or 12 foot in breadth, according to the distance and circumstances of the trees he is seen thro': And where there has been some thin underwood, or a few saplings, Mr. *Logan* has observ'd that the sun setting red, has appear'd thro' them like a large extensive flame, as if some house were on fire beyond them. Now the reason of this is obvious, viz. that being well acquainted with trees, the idea's of the space they take up are in a manner fix'd; and as one of those trees subtends an angle at the eye, perhaps not exceeding 2 or 3 seconds, and would scarce be distinguishable, were it not for the strong light behind them, the sun's diameter of above 30 minutes takes in several of them; and therefore will naturally be judged vastly larger. Hence it is evident, that those bodies appear greater or less according to the objects that interpose or are taken in by the eye on viewing them. And to this only is that phenomenon to be imputed.

Mr. *Logan* is sensible this method of arguing is not new; yet the observations here given may probably tend to illustrate the case beyond what has been advanced on the subject.

*The Case of a Lad bitten by a mad Dog; by Mr. Edward Nourse. Phil. Trans. N° 445. p. 5.*

**S**TEPHEN *Bellasis*, about 16 years of age, was sometime in June 1735 bit by a mad dog thro' the nail of his right thumb. Mr. *Nourse* being immediately call'd, proposed to make a ligature above, and cauterize the wounded part: But that not being complied with, he desir'd Mr. *Gernum*, the apothecary, to make up the remedy, mention'd by *Dampier* *Phil. Trans. N° 237 and 443*, viz. Rx. *Lichen. ciner. terrestris* *piper nig. aa 3 i. f. pulvis*. Of this powder the lad took a drachm within an hour after he was bit; repeated it next morning before he set out for *Gravesend*, where he was 10 days, and was dip't in the salt water every day; during which time he repeated the medicine evening and morning; and he continu'd so to do for 40 days.

He had not the least sign of being affected by the poison, till *Tuesday the 11th of January 1736-7*, when in the evening he complain'd of a numbness in 3 of the fingers of the hand that was not bit: Next morning he was sick, had great pain across his stomach and in all his bones; in the evening Mr. *Nourse* was sent for to bleed him, the people about him supposing he had got cold. When he came he found him feverish, with a hard full pulse, and the complaints aforesaid: Upon enquiring what nourishment he had taken that day? He made answer, none: For, he could not swallow: Whereupon Mr. *Nourse* look'd into his mouth, but there was no inflammation; neither did any thing occur to him that could possibly produce the difficulty of swallowing, complain'd of: He was offer'd some sack-beer in a basin, but he started at the sight of it, neither would he suffer it to come near him: He was then offer'd a spoonful, which he was prevail'd on to swallow; the moment it was down, he was convulsed, and a remarkable horror appear'd in his countenance, succeeded by a profuse sweat all over his face and head: He afterwards took another spoonful; the consequence was the same as before, but in somewhat a higher degree: Mr. *Nourse* was now convinced that this was the *υδροφοβία*, and that it arose from his having been bit 19 months before: nor, after the most strict enquiry, it did not appear that he had been bit by any animal since.

Mr. *Nourse* acquainted his friends with his apprehensions, and desir'd farther advice. Upon which Dr. *Monro* was sent for, who order'd him to be let blood, and to repeat the above-mention'd medicine in a bolus every 4 hours, and a clyster: he was blooded, and the clyster injected; but he could not be prevail'd on to take but one of the bolus's. This night was spent with great inquietude, and without any sleep: *Thursday* morning he was generally convulsed, and had frequent reachings and yawnings alternately: About noon his mind (which till then continued sound) left him, and he rav'd and foamed at the mouth till 5 o'clock in the afternoon; at which time nature seemed quite spent, and he lay very quiet till 7, when he died. Thus the poison lay latent in this lad near 19 months; a thing which never fell within Mr. *Nourse*'s observation before, mentioned in books.

Mr. *Nourse* had cut this lad for the stone the preceeding summer; namely about a year after he had been bit; and he never saw a wound more dispos'd to heal; for, the lad was well abroad in 5 weeks.

*An Explanation of the Runic Characters of Helsingland*  
by M. Andrew Celsius. Phil. Trans. N<sup>o</sup> 445. p. 7.

IT is well known that there are stones found in several parts of *Sweden*, which were formerly set up as obelisks in memory of the dead. These monuments are marked with the ancient northern letters, call'd *Runor* or *Runic characters*. But in *Helsingland* a province of north *Sweden* there occur 5 of those stones, which have characters cut into them that seem to differ from the common *Runic*. Upon the introduction of our modern letters, these *Runic* characters became so little regarded, that their interpretation was lost even to the *Swedish* antiquaries till the year 1674, when M. *Magnus Celsius*, Grandfather to our author, astronomy professor at *Upsal*, reviv'd their reading, and drew up the alphabet of them (Fig. I. Plate IX.) ranged after the manner of the ancients.

There are but 16 letters; and the words are frequently distinguish'd either by 3 points set perpendicularly over one another: or by two at some distance asunder.

Among the several alphabets hitherto known, it would be a hard matter to find one like the foregoing, except the characters of the *Persepolis* inscriptions, which have not hitherto been decypher'd: For, the letters generally made use to denote different sounds, according to their various shapes. Whereas in this alphabet the same character often denotes different sound, according to the diversity of its place and attitude between the two parallels. Thus a strait stroke standing perpendicular to the parallel lines, signifies I, F, and S: For, when it joins these parallels, it signifies I; when it rests on the lower parallel, it signifies F, on the upper, and D, when it touches neither of them. The small wedge leaning to the right, and placed near the upper parallel, denotes L; in the middle, N; and O, near the lower parallel; a line descending from the upper parallel, and making a curve downwards to the left, stands for K; the same place contrarywise from the lower parallel upwards, expresses E; and so of the rest.

The intention of the first inventor of these letters seems have been, to form all the characters of small wedges straight and crooked lines, and 2 points, variously placed  
twe

ween the 2 parallels : For, the wedges may be placed 15 different ways, as represented in Fig. 2.

The straight line may also have 15 different situations, as in Fig. 3.

The crooked lines may likewise be varied 14 different ways, as in Fig. 4.

In fine the 2 points admit of 12 variations, as in Fig. 5.

But as the ancient *Suevo-Gorbi* had but 16 letters in their alphabet, they did not want all these variations of the wedges, lines and points : Wherefore they employ'd six variations of the wedges ; five of the straight lines ; three of the crooked ; and but two of the points.

If we now suppose these *Helsingic* characters to be older than the common *Runics* ; the greatest part of the common *Runics* may easily be deriv'd from the *Helsingics*, by adding a perpendicular line to the small wedges and curves ; as appears by Fig. 6.

But if we suppose the common *Runics* to be older, and to be deriv'd, as is very probable, from the ancient Greek and Roman letters ; we must contrarywise deduce the *Helsingic* characters from the common *Runics*, by subtracting the perpendicular line.

As a specimen Fig. 7. represents a stone found at *Malstad* : M. *Celsius* took an exact copy of it *Anno 1725*, in company with his uncle Dr. *Olave Celsius* ; of whom is expected a complete account of all these *Helsingic* inscriptions.

On the outer limb or border is what is represented Fig. 8.

In the first curvature as in Fig. 9.

In the second snake dragon as in Fig. 10.

In the inner limb as in Fig. 11.

In the 2d curvature as in Fig. 12.

In the first snake as in Fig. 13.

In the heads of the snakes as in Fig. 14.

That is, *Frumunt* erected this stone to *Fisiulfi* the son of *Brisi*: But *Brisi* was the son of *Lini* : But *Lini* was the son of *Un* : But *Un* was son of *Fab* : But *Fab* the son of *Duri* : But he the son of *Barlaf* : But he (the son) of *Drun* : But he (the son) of *Lanas* : But he (the son) of *Fidrasiv*. *Frumunt* the son of *Fisiulfi* made these *Runic* (letters). We have placed this stone to the north of *Bala* stone. *Arva* was the mother of *Fisiulfi*. *Siulfir* (or *Fisiulfir*) was the Governor of this province. His place of abode was in *Rimbun*.

That this monument was erected since Christianity began to flourish in *Sweden*, sufficiently appears by the figure of the cross. It is moreover probable, that *Fisiulfi*, as the Governor of the province, was descended of a very noble family; seeing his genealogy is traced 10 generations backwards: Now if we suppose *Frumunt* to have been 30 years of age when he erected this monument for his father, and with Sir *Isaac Newton* allow 30 years for each generation; we shall find 330 from the death of *Fisiulfi* to the birth of *Fidrasiv*, who is the stock of these generations.

There is a figure of this stone in M. *De la Morraye's* travels but with considerable errors in the windings of the snakes, and in the letters, as well as in the explanation given them.

*A Lunar Eclipse observ'd in Fleet-street, London, March 15, 1735-6; by Mr. George Graham. Phil. Trans. N° 445. p. 14.*

H. M. S.

10	13	○ The beginning..
11	11	○ The total immersion.
12	49	○ The emersion.
13	47	○ The end.

*At Greenwich, Dr. Halley observ'd.*

H. M. S.

The beginning	10	13	37
The immersion	11	9	42.

*Observations on the lunar Eclipse March 15, 1735-6 at Mr. Graham's House in Fleet-street, London; by M. Celsius. Phil. Trans. N° 445. p. 15.*

**T**HIS eclipse was observ'd with a reflecting telescope, 11 inches, magnifying 63 times and made at Edinburgh.

H. M. S.

10	22	5	The shadow on the middle of <i>Kepler</i> .
23	15	—	Entering <i>Mare humorum</i> .
28	16	—	— <i>Copernicus</i> .
29	34	—	the middle of <i>Copernicus</i> .
30	26	—	<i>Copernicus</i> entire.

H.	M.	S.	
10	33	28	shadow enters on <i>Timocaris</i>
	38	44	— On <i>Tycho</i>
	39	12	— On the middle of <i>Tycho</i>
	40	48	<i>Tycho</i> entire
	46	0	The shadow enters on <i>Menelaus</i>
	49	20	On <i>Plinius</i>
11	0	40	On <i>Mare Crisium</i>
	5	36	<i>Mare Crisium</i> entire
	9	17	The total immersion is about to begin
	13	55	<i>Tycho</i> emerged out of the shadow
	29	0	<i>Mare serenitatis</i> entirely emerged
	40	45	<i>Mare Crisium</i> entirely emerged
	45	50	The eclipse nearly ended
	46	12	Certainly ended.

Observations on the same Eclipse, in Covent-Garden, London; by Dr. Bevis. Phil. Transf. N° 445. p. 16. Translated from the Latin

True time p. m.

H.	M.	S.	
6	53	47	<i>Saturn</i> in the point of intersection of the threads of the micrometer.
1	31	5	The first of the hyades at $\delta$ passes the thread <i>a</i> (Fig. 15. Plate IX.) the telescope inverting,
1	31	50	— Passes the horary thread <i>b</i> .
1	32	35	— Passes the thread <i>c</i> ,
1	42	39	<i>Saturn</i> again in the concourse of the threads.
8	19	57 $\frac{1}{2}$	The first of the hyades at $\delta$ passes the thread <i>a</i>
8	20	42 $\frac{1}{2}$	— <i>b</i>
8	21	27 $\frac{1}{2}$	— <i>c</i>
9	50	0	The disk of the moon runs along the horary thread in 139 seconds of time
9	56	0	Again in 139 seconds
0	01	0	And again in 139 seconds
0	9	40	A thin penumbra seems to darken the moon near <i>Hevelius</i>
0	10	20	Now a very sensible one
0	11	40	The beginning

True

True time p. m.

H. M. S.

10	14	38	The limits of the shadow, as far as he could judge, passes through <i>Grimaldus</i> and <i>Cavallerius</i>
10	19	46	Through <i>Aristarchus</i>
10	24	15	The shadow enters on <i>Mare humorum</i>
10	32	44	It covers <i>sinus roris</i>
10	32	44	The moon scarcely seen through the clouds
10	40	18	The shadow divides <i>Tycho</i>
10	42	26	It touches <i>Mare serenitatis</i>
10	46	1	It touches <i>Menelaus</i>
			A black cloud comes on.
10	53	46	The cloud going off, <i>Mare nectaris</i> is found entirely immersed.
			Very thick clouds do again intercept the figure of the moon
11	0	56	The shadow touches <i>Mare Crisium</i>
11	5	48	<i>Mare Crisium</i> and <i>mare fæcundum</i> immersed
11	10	0	The moon entirely immersed.
12	42	20	Now the eastern limb of the moon begins clear up
12	46	5	It grows still clearer
12	46	56	A thread of pure light restor'd in the twinkling of an eye
			A great many flying small clouds
12	57	5	The limits of the light touch <i>mare humorum</i>
13	4	3	<i>Mare humorum</i> intirely emerged
13	13	40	<i>Tycho</i> half emerged
13	14	0	Entirely emerged
13	17	22	<i>Waltberus</i> emerges

A great darkness by clouds, that, as it seem'd, would continue for some time

13	43	44	<i>Mare fæcundum</i> is observ'd without the shadow
13	46	25	The true shadow ends
13	48	30	The penumbra no longer sensible

In these observations the Doctor made use of a good clock that for several days before, and on the very day of eclipse had been adjusted by five corresponding almanacs

of the sun, corrected by the equation table, as also of a six foot telescope. About the middle of the eclipse the moon was seen as through a dusky small cloud; but at the edges she was red as glowing hot iron. The limits of light and shadow were all the time of the eclipse not well defin'd.

*Observations of the same Eclipse, at Yeovil in Somersetshire,  
Lat. 50 Degrees, 52 Minutes; by Mr. John Milner.  
Phil. Trans. N° 445. p. 18.*

The clock was first adjusted by the equation table.

The beginning of the eclipse at	10	6	0	Deg. Min.
The moon's altitude then was			34	29
The beginning of total obscuration	11	4	30	
The moon's altitude then was			34	16
The middle of the total obscuration	11	54		
The end	12	43	30	
The moon's altitude then was			34	47
The end	1	39	15	
The altitude then was			31	47
The continuation of the total obscuration was		5	39	
The duration of the whole eclipse	3	33	15	

*The Efficacy of Oil-olive in curing the Bite of Vipers; by  
Mr. Stephen Williams. Phil. Trans. N° 445. p. 26.*

AT Plymouth, June 26, 1735, in presence of several gentlemen of the faculty of physic, William Oliver, the viper-catcher (mentioned Phil. Trans. N° 443) suffer'd himself to be bit by a female viper; which being enraged, fix'd her fangs in the middle part of his fore-finger. There soon issued out blood from the wounds: But that the poison might the more strongly appear, the same viper immediately bit a pigeon in the breast, which expired in less than half an hour. Another pigeon was also bit by the same viper, which likewise expired, tho' not so soon as the first. The man immediately complain'd of an acute pain in the wounded part; and it soon look'd red, and then became of a livid colour; his finger swelled to a great size; and he could not bend it. Soon after this his hand also began to swell: He complained of faintness, and pains flying to his arm, shoulder,

der, and arm-pit. In half an hour's time from the bite, his specific being applied, and strongly rubbed into the part affected, procured him immediate ease: His pain abated, his finger became flexible, and his spirits seem'd more cheerful: The specific being several times repeated and applied, his pains gradually diminish'd. The next day his finger and hand continued swoln, but without pain; the skin began to appear yellow, and pustules like bladders appear'd on his finger; which being prick'd emitted a finous liquor. In two days time all the symptoms vanish'd, and he became perfectly well.

June 30. The gentlemen of the faculty met again, when several experiments were tried upon puppies, cats, and pigeons; wherein was found the efficacy of this man's specific, and that to the great satisfaction of the company.

*A Proposal for the Admeasurment of the Earth in Russia;*  
by Mr. Jos. Nich. de L'Isle. Phil. Trans. N° 445. p. 27.

**N**ECESSITY, or the exigencies of geography and navigation put mankind very early upon the enterprise of measuring the earth: For, how is it possible to construct maps of each kingdom or empire, without setting down all the places in their true distances, by the measures made use of in each country, as were the *stadia* of the ancients; and now the miles, leagues, wersts, &c. of the moderns. And how could different states be compar'd with one another; so as to come at the knowledge of the spaces they severally possess on the earth's surface, without knowing the number of these common measures, contain'd in a degree, or in the whole extent of the earth? Hence arose the twofold method of determining the situation of the different parts of the earth, either by their mutual distances, set down in the measures made use of in each country; or expressed in measures common to all, as degrees, minutes, and seconds by marking the longitude and latitude of each place.

Upon the first determination of the magnitude of the earth in geographical measures, as in *Stadia* and *Arabian miles*, the ancients did not employ any great degree of exactness: They were content to set down the circumference of the earth and of its parts, in round numbers; probably, because they did not expect to be able to attain to much precision in a research of this nature: But according as their desires of improving geography increased, by entering into a detail of it, they found it necessary to have a more exact knowledge of the magnitude

of each degree, not only in the great measures, as miles and leagues, but also in perches, toises and feet; which could not be otherwise done than by geometrical operations and astronomical observations, more exact, and consequently more operose, than had been, or indeed could have been, undertaken before.

M. de *L'Isle* avoids entering upon a detail of the immense labours of modern Mathematicians on this head; as those of *Fernel* in *France*; *Snellius*, *Bleau* and *Muschenbroek* in *Holland*; *Norwood* in *England*; *F.Riccioli*, and *M.Bianchini* in *Italy*; and the gentlemen of the *Academy of Sciences* in *France*; to get only the precise magnitude of a degree in the measures of their respective countries: But he answers an objection, which might be rais'd hereon, viz. that it was needless to undertake these same operations in so many different places; since the magnitude of a degree once determin'd in the measures of any one country, may be easily reduced to the measures of any other, by the exact knowledge we now have of the proportions of modern measures.

Now taking *Russia*, for instance, the geographical measures of which are wersts, divided each into 500 sogenes, and each sogene supposed to be exactly seven feet *English*, this relation once known, as also the exact relation of the *English* to the *French* foot, or to the toise of six foot, which the *French* astronomers made use of in their admeasurements; and of which they found a degree of a great circle contained 1060; what more is requisite for concluding that a degree of a great circle contains 104 wersts and  $\frac{1}{2}$ ? And what remains to the perfection of the geography of *Russia* in the most minute detail that can be enter'd upon, but to employ this measure of wersts, sogenes, and *English* feet (if you please) in actual admeasurements; and to construct the maps by the most exact methods of geometry; taking care to set them down right, as to their true bearings, and to regulate them by the most exact astronomical observations of longitude and latitude that can possibly be made.

But M. de *L'Isle* makes it appear, that the geography of *Russia* cannot be brought to this pitch; not only in the general map, but likewise in that of any particular district whatever; without undertaking an equal, and even a greater work than all that hitherto has been done in *France* and elsewhere, towards the admeasurement of the earth.

When it was said above, that an exact knowledge of the magnitude of a degree of the earth in any known measures of one country was sufficient for constructing exact maps of all other countries, only having a regard to the different proportion of the measures, that is to be understood upon a supposition of the earth's being perfectly spherical: Seeing it is well known, that in a sphere the degrees of all the great circles are every where equal; and that we likewise know, in a sphere, the proportion of the degrees of the lesser circles to their great parallels, according to their distance from them.

But if the earth be not perfectly spherical, the case quite alter'd: All the degrees of the great circles will not be equal to one another, and those of the lesser, taken at certain distance from their parallel great circles, will not have the same relation that the degrees of the lesser circle taken at the same distance, would have on a sphere. In this there might possibly arise an infinite variety, according to the figure the earth might have: And as it has not been hitherto decided, what is the true figure of the earth, and that there is no better method for ascertaining it, than by observations made in so great an extent as that of *Russia*.

For these reasons M. de *L'Isle* has advanced, that the perfection of the geography of *Russia*, stands in need of the great undertaking: But before he enters into a detail of the great advantages of this research, and the nature of the operations he proposes, he thinks it necessary to explain in what manner he means that the question of the earth's figure and magnitude is not yet decided,

There have been some who have long since suspected, and even thought, they were furnished with proofs of the earth not being exactly spherical. M. de *L'Isle* here intirely abstracts from the unevennesses of its surface; which are insensible in regard of the earth's whole bulk; seeing the tops of the highest mountains, and those even few in number, are scarce more than a league above the level of the sea. Wherefore, he supposes the earth to be bounded by a concave surface, such as it would be by the level of the sea carried quite over all the earth. It is in this manner, the earth being considered as cover'd with a fluid, that Sir Isaac Newton, in the first edition of his *Principia*, published in 1687, has demonstrated, that supposing this fluid homogened, and the earth to have been at rest at the time of its creation,

tion, it must have assumed the figure of a perfect sphere : But afterwards supposing it to have a motion on its axis, as is well known it has in 24 hours ; this spherical figure must have been changed into that of a spheroid, flattened at its poles, in which the degrees on the meridian must be greater, drawing nearer the poles than near the equator.

Sir Isaac confirms this hypothesis of the earth's figure by observations of the diminution of the simple pendulum upon approaching the equator ; to which Dr. Pound adds the analogy the earth has with some of the other planets, as Jupiter, which sometimes appears oval, its least axis being that about which it performs its revolution.

This opinion of Sir Isaac Newton has likewise been maintained by M. Huygens, tho' with some small difference : But in 1691 M. Eiseñschmid (in his *diatribe de figura telluris elliptico-sphéroïde* ; ubi unà exhibeter ejus magnitudo per singulas dimensiones, consensu omnium observationum comprobata, Argentorati, apud Joh. Frider. Spoo, 1691. 4to. p. 54. cum fig.) having compar'd the admeasurements of the earth made in different latitudes, as that of P. Riccioli in Italy; of M. Picart in France, and of Snellius in Holland ; and having found that the degree, which resulted from those different admeasurements, continued to become less in drawing nearer the poles, (which is quite the contrary of what follows from the earth's figure, supposed by Sir Isaac Newton and Huygens) M. Eiseñschmid was thereupon of opinion that the earth was longer at the poles.

This opinion of M. Eiseñschmid was afterwards confirm'd by the late M. Cassini, in the observations of the meridian of Paris : For, in 1701, having carried on these operations to the Pyrenean mountains, which is a space of above seven degrees and  $\frac{1}{2}$ , he found, that as he advanced to the south, these degrees increased  $\frac{1}{8\frac{1}{2}}$  part, or 72 toises each degree.

Since the meridian of Paris was in 1718 carried on northwards to the sea, M. Cassini, the younger, found, upon comparing more than eight degrees, which this meridian contains from sea to sea, that the increase, going northwards, was but from 60 to 61 toises each degree ; as may be seen in the large treatise published in a separate volume, as a sequel to the *Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences* at Paris for the year 1718. These reasons did not hinder Sir Isaac Newton from persisting in his first opinion of the figure of the earth being flattened at the poles, as appears in the 2d and 3d editions of his *Principia*, published in 1713 and 1726 : And

it is very surprising, that by this very figure of the earth he demonstrates a certain motion it has, to explain in the *Copernican* system the precession of the equinoxes, or the apparent motion of the fixt stars in longitude. Sir *Isaac* finds the inequality of the degrees on the meridian, in so small an extent as that of *France*, not sensible enough to be possibly determin'd by immediate observations; and he is of opinion, that we ought more to rely on the observations of the simple pendulum, and on the other principles which he has built upon, to conclude the earth flatt'd at the poles.

In 1720 M. *Mairan* attempted to reconcile the two different hypotheses of Sir *Isaac Newton* and M. *Cassini*, by imagining that the earth, at its creation, being without motion was of much more oblong figure than that which *Cassini* thinks it has at present: So that it might have been reduced to that which it now has, by the diurnal motion on its axis, &c. But Dr. *Daguliers*, who is of Sir *Isaac Newton's* opinion, has made appear in *Phil. Trans.* N° 388, that M. *Mairan's* supposition is contrary to the laws of motion; and he has moreover propos'd several considerable doubts on the observations and suppositions made use of by M. *Cassini* in his determination of the earth's figure in 1718.

As soon as the meridian of *Paris* had been extended from one sea to the other; and M. *Cassini* had thence deduced a confirmation of the system of the earth's being longer at the poles. M. *de L'isle* devised a new method of deciding the question, by the observation of the degrees of the parallel, compared with those of the meridian.

For that purpose he consider'd, that as the degrees of the meridian and those of the parallel, at the same elevation of the pole, had different relations, according to the different figure ascrib'd to the earth; nothing more was requisite for concluding which hypothesis was the true one, than to determine this relation by immediate observation.

Having supposed that there had been observed on the parallel of *Paris*, a space nearly of the same magnitude with that of the meridian, that is, of about 13 degrees; since that on the meridian is about 8 degrees and  $\frac{1}{2}$ ; M. *de L'isle* found by an exact calculation, that according to the figure M. *Cassini* had given to the earth, this space ought to contain 13 minutes and  $\frac{1}{2}$  of the parallel more than in the hypothesis of the earth's being spherical; which appeared to him considerable enough to be able to decide between these two hypothesis, and by a

*stronger*

stronger reason, between the hypothesis of Sir Isaac Newton and M. Cassini; since the difference ought to be still more considerable than that now specified.

M. de L'isle concluded at least, that independent of the figure of the whole earth, which could not be determin'd by the sole observations made in France without making suppositions, and admitting principles which are still liable to be contested; it would be of great consequence towards constructing exact maps of the kingdom, to ascertain this relation by observations, which consist'd only in forming triangles along the parallel of Paris, and observing at the two ends the difference of the meridians, by the most exact methods.

The difference, he has now mention'd, seem'd to him to be considerable, that he was in hopes of being able to determine it by means only of 2 places within sight of each other, and situated to the east and west; provided their difference of longitude were accurately observ'd, independently of astronomical observations, by means of lighted fires; after the manner that M. Picart put in practice in Denmark, for determining the difference of longitude of the astronomical tower at Copenhagen and Uraniburg in the isle of Huen. With this intent, in April 1720, M. de L'isle went some distance from Paris southwards, to the places he judged properst for his purpose: But his design was not then executed, for want of assistance, and for other reasons, he omits to mention.

Since that time M. de L'isle saw with pleasure, that Poleni had hit upon the same thought with him; as may be seen in his letter to the Abbé Grandi, dated November 1724.

The decision of this famous question of the earth's figure had stopped here; when in 1733, the minister of France having thought it necessary to construct an exact map of the whole kingdom; and being informed that the work could not be better carried on than by the astronomers of the Royal Academy of Sciences, applied to M. Cassini on that head; who was of opinion, that in order to execute it with the utmost exactness, the same method ought to be made use of as for the meridian, by taking thro' the whole extent of the kingdom, triangles linkt together, by means of objects seen successively one from another, &c. This project of making a map of France by such triangles had been already offer'd to M. Colbert by M. Picart in 1681, but was not then executed. However M. Cassini proposed, that these triangles should be begun in a direction perpendicular to the meridian, in order to render these operations of

of service towards the decision of the earth's figure, pursuant to the method spoken of above: And M. *Cassini*, having in person undertaken these operations, and carried them that same year, viz. 1733, from *Paris* to *St. Malo*, whose longitude from *Paris* M. *Picart* had observ'd in 1681; the relations of the degrees on the meridian and parallel were found to be such as we requir'd in the hypothesis of the earth lengthen'd at the poles, and even more lengthen'd than *Cassini* had determin'd in 1718. For, instead of the diminution of a sixtieth part for each degree of the parallel, which M. *de L'isle* had found according to the earth's figure, as determin'd by *Cassini* in 1718, this last deduced from his operations in 1733, a diminution of the 30th part of each degree.

True it is, that M. *Cassini*, in the account he gave of the determination at a publick meeting of the *Royal Academy of Paris* Nov. 14. 1733, does not give it as entirely sure; because the longitude of *St. Malo*, with regard to *Paris*, was collected but from one observation only of *Jupiter's* first satellite, wherein there may possibly be some error: But at least M. *Cassini* seems certain, that there is a very considerable diminution in the degrees of the parallel of *Paris*; which confirms his opinion of the earth's being longest at the poles. This we are likely to have a better certitude of hereafter, since this admeasurement of the parallel of *Paris* is carrying on in *France* by M. *Cassini's* sons, M. *Miraldi's* nephew, and several other young mathematicians, instructed by M. *Cassini* in this sort of work.

It has been already said, that all these operations performed in *France*, for the figure and magnitude of the earth, could serve to determine the earth's figure out of *France*, without assistance of certain hypotheses; unless the same thing be undertaken and carried on in the other regions of the earth more southern and northern than *France*. It is upon this consideration, that the *Royal Academy of Sciences* took up the solution of sending some astronomers to make the like observations as near the equator and the poles as possible; which are the places where the difference of the degrees on the meridians ought to be the greatest, according to the different hypotheses.

In April 1735, three mathematicians and astronomers of the *Academy*, viz. M. *Godin*, *Bouguer*, and *De la Condamine*, went out from *France* for the province of *Quito*, the most northern part of *Peru* in *America*; in order to observe, just under the equinoctial line, the magnitude of some degrees of the meridians and equator.

As to the other mathematicians and astronomers of the same Academy, viz. M. de Maupertuis, Camus, Clairaut the younger, and Monnier, the younger, who have been sent to the north, they departed from France in April 1736, with M. Celsius, professor of astronomy at Upsal, who accompanied them as far as the bottom of the gulph of Bothnia in Sweden, where they might measure about a degree on the meridian at its crossing the polar circle: But as by the last accounts M. De L'isle had of them, they had not finish'd their operations; it is not yet known whether the magnitude of the degree measur'd by them, favours the opinion of M. Cassini, or that of Sir Isaac Newton: All we know is, that they have found the length of the simple pendulum favourable to the latter, that is, longer under the polar circle than farther south. M. De la Croyere had already found the same thing: For, being at Archangel in 1728, he there observed, in the exactest manner he possibly could, the length of the simple pendulum, which he found to be  $\frac{1}{6}$  of a line longer than at Paris.

We are likewise informed by the other Astronomers gone to Peru, that in their way towards the equator, being at St. Domingo, in Lat. 18 degrees, 37 minutes, they there found the pendulum swinging seconds to be about 2 lines shorter than at Paris. Thus, all we hitherto know from those Gentleman, on their expeditions to the north and to the line, confirms the opinion of Sir Isaac Newton, and his adherents: And yet M. Maran pretends, that this shortning of the pendulum in drawing nearer the equator, is in one sense entirely independent of the earth's figure.

Thus it appears from the foregoing account, that the question concerning the earth's figure is not yet decided: Nay, it is not impossible, that after finishing all the observations which are actually making, new difficulties may arise, and new objections be started, that may prevent its being entirely decided. However all this work cannot fail throwing a great deal of light on this important question, and procuring considerable advantages to geography, astronomy and natural philosophy.

It is with this view, and particularly to render such important service to the geography of Russia, that M. De L'isle thinks it necessary to undertake a work of that nature in Russia; towards executing which, there are great advantages, which other nations have not. One of the principal, is the great extent of Russia every way: For, were the meridian of the Imperial Observatory of Petersburgh to be determined, it might be carried

carried to between 22 and 23 degrees; which is a fourth part of the distance from the pole to the equator. The meridians of *Mosco* and *Astracan* are not of less extent; and consequently by the admeasurement of some one of these meridians, might be determined more exactly, than could have hitherto been done, the inequality that subsists between the degrees of the meridian.

This is what the Great *Cassini* wish'd for; when, after having in 1701, determin'd this inequality by the extent of 7 degrees observ'd in *France*, as mention'd above, he says, that this fact might be verified by mensurations of greater extent, if the other princes of the earth did contribute as much as the King of *France* towards the perfecting of sciences.

In the great extent, which might be given to the meridian of *Petersburgh*, as aforesaid, there would be the advantage of knowing, by operations linkt together, or uninterrupted, the magnitude of some degrees equal to those which have been measur'd in *France*; and to that which the *French* astronomer have measur'd in *Sweden*; and not only all the degrees between the two, which the *French* astronomers have not had in their power to observe, but also some degrees farther northward than that measur'd by them in *Sweden*.

As the exigencies of geography require the triangles, taken for the determination of the meridian, to be continu'd on every side, and principally in directions perpendicular to the meridian or according to the parallels: With what great exactness may we not then determine the proportion of the degrees on the parallels to those on the meridian, by means of the vast extent of the *Russian* empire; which on its western side extending as far as all the dominions of *Europe* from the most northern to the most southern, has no other bounds to the east than the earth itself, so to speak; seeing its extent that way contains near half the earth?

Another great advantage to be obtain'd by the work M. *L'Isle* now proposes to be made in *Russia* is, that coming after others, the benefit of all their knowledge and experience in the like kind of admeasurements will be reaped: Whence one may expect to succeed, and execute it better than could have been done elsewhere, by applying timely remedies against the difficulties that occur'd in other places.

These operations are to be founded on a basis of the greatest length possible; which must be actually measur'd, and with the greatest exactness that may be; as it is to serve as a founda-

tion to the admeasurement of all the triangles: And in this point too there is a very great conveniency near Petersburg, seeing on the ice there may be measured out a basis, greater than has been hitherto taken; namely from the coast of *Ingria* about Peterhoff to the coast of *Finland* towards *Systerbeck*. There is no less than 20 wersts distance between these 2 extremities; and this great distance may be measur'd very exactly, this year especially, viz. 1737, that the ice is very even: Moreover, as this basis is situate between the isle of *Cronstad* and *Petersburg*, in a direction nearly perpendicular to the distance from *Petersburgh* to *Cronstad*; there can be no better method for inferring thence, by exact observation of the angles taken at the extremities of this basis, the distance from the centre of the Imperial Observatory to the steeple of the New Church of *Cronstad*; which 2 objects are seen reciprocally from each other, and are not less than 30 wersts asunder: And this distance once known exactly will serve as a foundation for all the triangles that are to be taken; of which each of the sides may have not less than from 30 to 40 wersts, according as objects shall be found advantageously situated for that purpose. There is the mountain of *Donderhof* to begin with, which, with the Imperial Observatory, and the steeple of *Cronstad* Church, forms one of the most convenient triangles imaginable for the subject proposed.

In taking observations at these 3 places may be seen, if others of the same advantageous situation can be discover'd: But when no remarkable objects are found of the situation and distance sought for, they must be erected on purpose, in the same manner as was of necessity done in other countries. And this may be done in *Russia* with more ease; since, in places where the woods intercept the sight, small towers may be rais'd, at very little expence, out of these same woods, with signals placed on them, which may be seen as far as is required. In open places, where consequently wood is not so common, signals alone, without towers, will suffice.

The most necessary instruments for executing this undertaking, are, besides the ordinary astronomical instruments, a common quadrant of between 2 and 3 foot radius, for observing the angles of the triangles that shall be taken; and a portion of a circle of the greatest radius that can be conveniently had, for observing the arches of the heavens corresponding with the distances measur'd on the earth.

The quadrant ought not to have a radius of more than between 2 and 3 foot: For, if it be bigger, it cannot for the most part be made use of in steeples and other places of considerable height, where it is requisite to observe: But also if it be less than 2 foot, it will not give the quantity of the angles with sufficient exactness.

As to the other instrument for observing the arches of the heavens, its radius ought not to be less than from 12 to 15 foot but it is not necessary that it should contain a large portion of circle: It is only requisite to have this portion somewhat larger than the arch of the heavens intended to be measur'd. Thus as the meridians, which may be traced in *Russia*, can be extended but between 22 and 23 degrees, as already mention'd, will suffice, that the instrument employ'd therein be a portion of a circle of 30 degrees.

M. *Picart*, for his first operation, got an arch of a circle made of 18 degrees and of 10 foot radius, with which he thought himself sure within 2 or 3 seconds: And no other instrument was made use of in the chief observations for the meridian of *Paris*. The astronomers who are gone to *America* carried with them an instrument of 12 foot radius, and of a portion of a circle of 30 degrees. But those come to *Sweden* contented themselves with a portion of a circle of 5 degrees and  $\frac{1}{2}$ , and 9 foot radius: But this instrument made by Mr. *Graham*, a very able mechanic in *London*, is by its construction so exact, that the astronomers who have us'd it, think themselves sure to 2 seconds. The one for the observations in *Russia* should be made by the same artist, and of the same construction.

It is with such an instrument that Mr. *Bradley*, a celebrated English astronomer, has discover'd in the meridian altitudes some fixt stars, certain constant and annual variations, which do not proceed either from the variation of the refractions, from the parallax of these stars; or in fine, from any nutation or wavering of the earth's axis; but which he accounts for the successive motion of light.

Whatever be the cause of these variations, (which cause as well as its effect are not hitherto, perhaps, entirely clear'd up) as they may possibly happen in the space of time requisite to be spent in making the observations for the meridian, or in passing from one end of the meridian to the other; it is necessary with the same instrument, or such another that is of pretty near the same exactness, to examine the varia-

sions of the stars made use of. Wherefore it would be of considerable advantage, not only for the observations of the measurement of the earth, but also for all the other principal researches in astronomy to have orders given for procuring two mural quadrants of Mr. Graham's making, and of the same construction, as has been already specified; for which there are already walls raised at the *Imperial observatory*, in the plane of the meridian.

With these two quadrants, which might be of seven foot radius, and the moveable telescope 9 or 10 foot long, observations of the utmost accuracy might be made, such as the present state of astronomy requires.

Besides these instruments now mentioned, which are absolutely necessary to a solid establishment of astronomy and geography in *Russia*, there are still some other smaller instruments, that may be of considerable use in the operation proposed, or that may serve to make other curious and useful observations at the same time, than those for the admeasurement of the earth are making.

When the sides of the triangles, taken for measuring the earth, terminate at very elevated places, as on the tops of the highest mountains, it is necessary to reduce these triangles to what they would be, had they been observ'd in horizontal planes situate upon a level with the sea. For this purpose must be known the height of the mountains above the level of the sea, which cannot always be determined geometrically, or would at least be too tedious to perform: Wherefore, in the meridian of *Paris*, which cross'd very high mountains, M. *Cassini* was of opinion, that he ought to fix their height by a shorter method, which is that of the height of the simple barometer, observ'd on the top of such mountain, and compar'd with that observ'd at the same time in another place, whose elevation above the level of the sea was known. But as that method supposes the knowledge of the proportion, which the different fallings of the mercury, keep with the different heights to which the barometer is carried; and as natural philosophers are not hitherto entirely agreed on this head, for want of observations of sufficient accuracy: Hence it happened, that Dr. *Desailliers*, making appear that M. *Cassini* has not made use of the most exact proportion, found reasons for correcting, or least for doubting of some of *Cassini*'s calculations. Thus must be by the assistance of new experiments, better circumstantiated than those hitherto made, and pursuant to a

theory entirely agreeing with these experiments, that the method may be employ'd with certainty, for determining the height of mountains by the barometer, and reducing the angles observ'd from the tops of these high places, to what they would be, if they had been observ'd on a plane horizon with the level of the sea: Now these new observations may be made on the way in tracing the meridian; and for this purpose M. de L'Isle begun to construct compound barometers, which, by the peculiar nicety of their make, will serve with accuracy to observe the quantity of the mercury's fall at the different elevations, to which they shall be carried in order to fix with greater certainty the proportion of the fall: And in the construction and use of these instruments he proposes to provide against the effects of heat; which, it is different in the different times and places of making these experiments, may possibly produce apparent variation of which it is necessary to keep an account.

There is still another method of determining the elevation above the level of the sea of all the points, in which the triangles terminate, that are made for the admeasurement of the earth: And this may be done by beginning these operations near the sea, and actually measuring how many toises and feet the planes of the first stations are elevated above the level of the sea: For, if the angles of the apparent elevation of the second stations, seen from the first, be afterwards observ'd, it will be an easy matter, from the known distances, to reduce the true elevations of the latter above the former; and consequently above the level of the sea, making proper allowances in the calculations for the difference of the apparent level from the true one: In this method nothing is to be apprehended but the variation of refractions; but this a remedy may be found, for the most part, by returning upon one's steps, that is, by reciprocally observing the first stations seen from the second: For, if it be found, that as much as the second station appears elevated above the first, so much the first is depressed below the second, except a small difference which must arise according to the given instance, it will be a proof that the refraction has been of no prejudice.

The observations and determinations of the true heights of all the places, which are to be visited, will not be the laborious of those that are to be made in these journeys; but their usefulness will be a sufficient recompence for the trouble; since they will afford us the means of knowing

the chief unevennesses of the ground travers'd by these great triangles; which being compar'd with the length of the course of the rivers, may give us room to judge of their rapidity, of the ease or difficulty of their communications, &c.

The other considerable observations and experiments to be made in the journies, undertaken for such enquiries, are the observations of the magnetic needle, both as to its dip and variation: But chiefly the observations of the length of the simple pendulum; which at present is become requisite to be observ'd with as much exactness and in as many places as possible.

All the operations and observations here propos'd, however arduous and difficult they may prove, have no other end than the benefit of geography: those who are to have the management of this enterprize must be attended by several surveyors and other mathematicians of *Russia*, who are to be instructed on the road, and employ'd at the same time in lesser operations with smaller instruments: By which means the maps of the countries, taken in by these great triangles, may be verified. And thus according as this work advances, the finishing stroke may be given to the maps of *Russia*.

*The actual Mensuration of the Basis proposed in the preceding Dissertation: by the same. Phil. Trans. N° 445. p. 50.*

M. *De L'Isle* actually undertook to measure the basis mentioned above, and he had the good fortune to measure it exactly on the ice, by taking the precise distance between the castle at *Peterhoff*, and the castle of *Doubki*, situate opposite to it on the *Finland* coast. He found the distance between the opposite walls of these castles 74, 250 feet *English*. This basis being much greater than any of those hitherto employ'd for this purpose, gives room to expect great exactness in the whole work, when it shall be carried on in the same manner: It will at the same time serve to make a very exact map of the bottom of the gulph of *Finland*.

It is for the same purpose, and for better ordering the charts of the coasts of the *Baltic*, that he intended (as soon as his project shall be approved in its full extent) to begin to measure his triangles along the coasts of *Ingria* and *Livonia*, to the islands of *Dagbo*, *Oefel*, &c. And to the end that the charts of the places taken in by these triangles might be finished

finished at the same time, he design'd to take with him all the charts of these parts, which could be had, in order to verify and correct them in his way.

He likewise intended to publish, as soon as possible, all the operations and observations he should make in his expedition; that thus, early benefit might be reap'd from them; and that the publick at the same time the charts come out, might be acquainted with the foundation on which they are constructed. What retarded the publication of the whole detail of his operations in taking the basis, that is, of the precautions he used in ascertaining it, was his employing English feet in measuring, which he had a mind to reduce to the Russian measure; but as it was requisite to consult the original standards on this head, which he had not hitherto been able to procure, he was for these reasons obliged to delay the publication of these first observations.

*Observations of two Parhelia, or mock-suns, seen December 30. 1735; as also of an Aurora Borealis, December 1. 1735. by Mr. Timothy Neve. Phil. Trans. N<sup>o</sup> 44. p. 52.*

ON Tuesday the 30th of December, 1735. betwixt *Cheerly Orton* and *Alwalton* in the county of *Huntingdon* he observed two parhelia; the first of which shone so bright that at first he took it for the real sun; till looking a little farther on his left hand, he saw the true sun, much the brightest, in the middle, and a mock-sun on each side, in a line exactly parallel to the horizon. He guess'd their distance to be about 40 diameters of the sun, or as they usually appear 23 degrees. That on the left hand of the sun, where he saw it first, was small and faint; but in about two minute time it became as large and bright as the other, and appeared at once like two white lucid spots on each side of the sun, east and west, seemingly as big, but not so well defined. In about three minutes they lost both their colour and form and put on those of the rainbow; the red and yellow in both were very beautiful and strong next the sun, the other colours fainter. They became as two parts of an arch, or segment of a circle, with the concave part towards the sun, only round at top, the light and colour streaming downward and tending towards a point below: This continued for four or five minutes, when the colours gradually disappearing, they became, as before, lucid spots, without any distinction

tion of colours : They lasted a full hour ; sometimes the one brighter, and sometimes the other, probably according to the variation of the clouds and air. When Mr. Neve first saw it, it was exactly a quarter after 11. There had been a frost in the morning, which went away pretty soon with a thick mist ; and between 10 and 11 o'clock it clear'd up, leaving only a haziness in the air behind it : The weather quite calm, wind, as he thought, at N. W.

These *parhelia* are commonly seen with a circle or halo round the sun, concentrical to it, and passing thro' the disks of the spurious or mock-suns : But there was not the least appearance of such a circle here ; it having only a tendency towards one, when it was seen with the rainbow colours.

The other phenomenon was that pretty common one of the *Aurora borealis* ; of which tho' there are so many exact and curious accounts in the *Philosophical Transactions* ; yet Mr. Neve does not remember any one in the manner he saw this of the 11th of December 1735.

A little after 5 o'clock, he observ'd the northern hemisphere to be obscur'd by a dusky red vapour ; in which, by degrees there appear'd several very small black clouds near the horizon. He thought it seem'd to be a preparation for those lights, which were afterwards seen ; the first eruption of which was within a quarter of an hour, full east from behind one of the small dark clouds, and soon after several others full north : These streams of light were of the same dusky red colour with the vapour, they first appear'd and vanish'd instantly. He observ'd eight or ten of these at once, about the breadth of the rainbow, of different heights, several degrees above the horizon, and they look'd like so many red pillars in the air ; and no sooner did they disappear, than others shew'd themselves in different places : In about half an hour, this colour of the vapour gradually changed itself towards the usual white, and spread itself much wider and higher ; and after that, appear'd as usual.

*Observations of two Parhelia seen at Wittemberg in Saxony on Dec. 31, 1735, O. S. by M. Weidler. Phil. Trans. N° 445. p. 54.*

DEC. 31, 1735. O. S. a little after 10 in the morning, a friend told M. Weidler, that several suns were to be seen in the heavens : Upon this the latter went directly into the garden adjoining to his house, and he immediately saw, near the sun

sun S (Fig. 15. Plate IX.) on his left or western side, the following particulars ; namely the parhelion B, as big as the true sun. This mock-sun was amidst small, round, white, cloud-set thick and close to one another : The part of the parhelion which faced the west, was not round, but broken, having about a third part of its circumference open, and shooting out the long bright stream or tail' B H : To this stream, both above and below, adher'd another stream F G, somewhat incurvated, with its horns turned from the sun westwards : The middle of the mock sun shone with so great a light, that the naked eye could not bear it ; wherefore, he view'd it attentively thro' a glass darken'd with the smoke of a wax-candle : The light of the parhelion B appear'd much weaker than that of the true sun, its circumference, which faced the sun, was red ; in like manner that part of the stream F G, which was towards the sun, was purple. Within the red border appear'd the other colours of the rainbow, as yellow, green and azure : And the stream B H was likewise embellish'd with red and yellow. Both edges of this were reddish, and its middle yellowish. The sun S was 15 degrees and  $\frac{1}{2}$  above the horizon ; and its image B was near the same altitude : For, he then found it to be 14 degrees. He measur'd the distance from S to B, more than once, and found it to be 20 degrees. The arch F G was near 6 degrees in length. Most of the south part of the hemisphere was overcast with white clouds, interspersed here and there with some darker ones : There were some thin clouds before the true sun, thro' which his rays easily pass'd : When thicker clouds surrounded the sun, the brightness of the parhelion was lessen'd. The parhelion was now and then hid by dark clouds. The thin white clouds, with which the northern part of the sky was overcast, reach'd up to the zenith. Soon after his first observing the parhelion B, as he look'd up to the zenith, he saw the beautiful rainbow C D E parallel to the horizon, with its horns turned to the north : It had the usual colours of the rainbow all very distinct ; the purple was on the side facing the sun, next to it was the yellow, then the green, and last, the azure. A line, drawn from the sun's centre to the middle D of the rainbow, tended to the zenith, and was a portion of that vertical circle in which the sun then was. The point D was 61 degrees distant from the horizon ; wherefore, the diameter of the rainbow was 58 degrees : However, there was but part of the rainbow C D E seen ; the ends of which were sometimes but 38 degrees from each other : For, more or less of it appear'd at different times.

times; but scarcely above a fourth part of its circumference at any time. It was sometimes seen among small white clouds, which were about the zenith, and sometimes in a clear sky. It lasted till the sun and most part of the sky was overcast by thick clouds. The thickness of the rainbow CK, as well as M. Weidler could estimate by the naked eye, was one degree of a great circle.

But as the neighbouring houses hinder'd his having a free prospect eastwards from his garden, he went to another place, whence he had a full view of the hemisphere: And having reach'd thither a little before 11, he immediately saw another parhelion A to the east, 20 degrees from the sun, as the foregoing was, and elevated 15 degrees above the horizon. This mock-sun was not inferior to the other B in brightness: For, the naked eye could no more bear it than that; its light was white, its figure round, and its size equal to that of the sun S. This parhelion A shot out the stream IL, which was rectilinear, white and resplendent, 8 degrees in length; and as far as he could discover, void of colours: For, it appear'd among small, white, broken, clouds; and lasted somewhat longer than the former, without changing its figure. Upon the sun's being hid by thick clouds about half an hour after 11, both these mock-suns disappear'd; but became visible again, upon the sun's shining bright.

The whole of the phenomena, observ'd in these parhelia, amounts to this; that the true sun S was accompanied by 2 parhelia; both 20 degrees distant from the sun, one on each side; and having nearly the same altitude with the sun from the horizon. Above the parhelia, part of a rainbow surrounded the zenith; and each of the parhelia sent forth a bright luminous stream or tail; one rectilinear and white, the other somewhat incurvated and colour'd. Moreover, from the western parhelion, a stream parallel to the horizon, and somewhat pointed, extended itself on the side opposite to the sun; and this scene lasted for the 2 hours of 10 and 11 before noon, till thick clouds put an end to it. There was no appearance of an entire crown, such as usually accompanies parhelia, and encircles the sun; tho' M. Weidler observed the tract of the sky near the sun, both with the naked eye and thro' glasses.

As to the state of the heavens on the 31. of December, when the parhelia were observ'd: Early in the morning a thick fog overspread the horizon: About 9 o'clock this fog condensed into small drops of rain, which fell slowly: Soon after, the vapours

were collected into thin clouds, particularly in that part above the sun: Then the sky became clear about the north; and there blew a gentle wind a little to the south of the east.

After noon, clouds gather'd to the west: About 30 minutes after twelve, the whole hemisphere was overcast, but in the evening it became clear and serene on all sides. On the following days, from the 1st to the 6th of January, the sky was constantly cloudy, or dark and the sun seldom seen thro' the break of the clouds. On the 7th, the weather clear'd up, which lasted 3 days. On the 10th, the whole hemisphere was overcast with clouds; and therefore this appearance of parhelia has not been attended with any uncommon weather.

The publisher having sent M. Weidler an account of M. Neve's observation of the mock-suns, seen by him in England which seem to agree in so many circumstances with those seen by the other in Germany; M. Weidler in his answer said  
 ' That it seems to him very worthy of remark, that parhelia  
 ' so very much alike, should appear two subsequent days  
 ' places so distant from each other; which indicates a similar  
 ' state of the air or atmosphere in both.' This extraordinary incident put M. Weidler upon writing an essay on the cause of parhelia: And accordingly he hath publish'd a small pamphlet in quarto, intitul'd *Jo. Frid. Weidleri commentatio de parheliis, Mense januarii Anno, 1736, prope Petroburgum Angliae & Vitemburgæ Saxonum visis. Accedit de rubore cœli igne mense Decembri Anno 1737 observato corollarium, Vitemburgiae, 1738, in quarto.*

*An Observation of three Mock-suns seen in London, September 17, 1736; by Mr. Folkes. Phil. Trans. N° 445. p. 59.*

SEPT. 17, 1736, a little after 7 o'clock in the morning, Mr. Folkes was reading in a room that looks towards the north-east he accidentally took notice of an odd stream of light, shooting upwards from the sun, as he thought, which shone thro' a thin waterish cloud: But recollecting that the appearance was several degrees more northerly than the sun's true place at that time, he immediately went to the window, and found what he had taken for the sun was a parhelion shooting out a short horizontal stream or tail towards the north; the sun itself shining pretty bright and clear at the same time. He also observ'd that the stream he had at first seen was part of an arch concentric to the sun, and passing thro' the parhelion: This arch was for a good way tolerably defin'd, a

tinged with red on the inside, and a bluish white on the other. He then cast his eye to the other side the sun, where he observ'd a 2d parhelion, at the same distance from him towards the south, tho' not yet so bright as the first. He then went up to his leads, his prospect being too confined below; where soon after he was come, he found the phenomenon to improve considerably, the arch round the sun forming itself into more than a semi-circle, reaching almost to the horizon northwards and with very little discontinuance beyond the second parhelion towards the south. He then began to perceive a 3d parhelion, where the circle surrounding the sun, would have been cut by the vertical passing through him; and in the same place his circle was touched by the arch of another, in some sort confounding itself with it in the place where the 3d parhelion appear'd: This was a good deal fainter than the other two; and the last mentioned arch extended but a little way: So as to be difficult to determine where its centre lay; this arch was likewise colour'd, but with red on its convex part: He had some time before this likewise began to see another circle, surrounding the sun at the distance of about 45 degrees, which appear'd to be about twice the distance of the first; and this likewise encreasing whilst he was considering it, became little less than a semi-circle, being likewise tinged with red like the other on the inner side. When this circle had thus pretty well formed itself, he also discover'd the arch of a 4th circle, touching this, or rather confounding itself with it in its highest part, and surrounding, as it seem'd, the zenith. Of this last circle he saw, when it was most compleat, better than half, and it was much stronger colour'd than any of the others, being of a bright red on its convex, and a good blue on its concave part. In the part where this circle blended itself with the larger of those that were concentric to the sun, their common part was nearly white, and brighter than the rest, tho' hardly enough, to call it a 4th parhelion. All which appearances are represented in Fig. 16. Plate IX. The principal mock-suns continu'd tolerably bright till near 8 o'clock, the southern part of the phenomenon improving as the northern part decay'd; and the southern parhelion was once so bright, that taking the advantage of a place where a chimney intercepted the true sun, it cast a very visible shadow. In like manner the white and luminous horizontal tail, that proceeded from this parhelion was much longer than that of the other, reaching at one time beyond the outer of the two concentric circles

circles. The parhelia themselves, tho' very luminous, were however never defin'd with any exactness as to their disks, but look'd as the sun is sometimes seen thro' a thin whitish cloud; and they were themselves of a reddish colour on that side next the true sun. About 8 the phenomenon was sensibly decreas'd, and had entirely disappear'd by 20 minutes after.

*A rupture of the Ileum from an external Contusion without any external Wound; by M. Christianus Wolfius. Phil. Trans. N° 445. p. 61. Translated from the Latin.*

**A**Certain labouring man ended his days by a melancholy accident, as follows; a stone falling down upon his lower belly, struck it so, that the place affected came indeed to view, but without any external wound. The day following about noon, the man, tho' pretty robust, contrary to all expectation, expired. Upon opening the abdomen, there was discover'd a large rupture in the *ileum*; so that it only adhered behind to the other guts with its contents discharg'd into the cavity of the abdomen. The liver was pale, quite void of its native colour; and even the lungs themselves had receded from their natural state, having lost their natural colour. From the livid spot on the abdomen, M. *Wolfius* gather'd, that the stone had struck with its sharp end upon the belly, and that the gut was burst by too great a tension, in the manner as incurvated bodies are broken in their superior convexity.

*Some new statical Experiments; by Dr. Desaguliers. Phil. Trans. N° 445. p. 62.*

**W**HEN a long and heavy body lying on the ground is to be rais'd up at one end (like a lever of the 2d kind) while the other end keep its place, and becomes the centre of its motion; the prop made use of to support it at any point in its whole length, sustains a certain pressure from the beam. Now the Doctor's experiments are to shew, by a force drawing always in the direction of the prop, what is the quantity of the pressure on the prop, according to the length of the prop, the angle it forms with the beam, or with the horizon; and the distance from the centre of motion of the beam at which the prop is applied: For, when the prop is taken away, the force drawing in the direction of the prop will keep the beam in *a quilibrio*; and a force ever so little superior to the friction, added to the power, will make it over-

poise

poise the beam, and raise it higher; but overcome the power and bring down the beam, if it be added or applied to the beam.

Tho' in every case or experiment we have this analogy taken from mechanical principles, *viz.* that the

Intensity of the power :

Is to that of the weight :

As the distance of the line of direction of the weight :

Is to the distance of the line of direction of the power,

Yet to find those distances nicely in the several applications of the prop, we must have recourse to geometrical constructions and reasonings. With these and the algebraical expressions of the same, the experiments exactly agree.

All the Doctor proposes now is to shew the experiments by means of a machine which he contrived for the purpose, and got executed with great nicety, not in ornaments, but only where nicety in a mechanical instrument ought to be observ'd.

In this machine, the iron bar, or parallelopiped representing the heavy body, weighs 12 drachms, 12 penny-weight, 12 grains, or 6060 grains; and its centre of gravity is at the distance of 20 inches and  $\frac{1}{2}$  from its centre of motion.

The props he makes use of are, the one of five, and the other of ten inches: To overcome the friction, allow'd for by certain rules in all cases, he uses a nice brass pully of three inches in diameter, whose pivots are but  $\frac{7}{10}$  parts of an inch in diameter: So that the 60th part of the power, added to it, will, in all cases, overcome the friction.

*Case 1.* In which the prop is perpendicular to the horizon, exemplified by two experiments.

*Exp. 1.* The prop is equal to five inches, and placed under point in the bar 10 inches distant from the centre of motion. Here the power acting in the direction of the prop, able to keep the bar in that situation, or the pressure sustained by the prop, will be found 250 ounces, 17 penny-weight, 15 grains; and the friction 8 penny-weight, 15 grains. The foot of the prop is to be at eight inches and  $\frac{1}{2}$  from the centre of the motion.

*Exp. 2.* If the same prop of five inches be placed under point in the bar at 30 inches from the centre of motion, the power or pressure will be eight ounces, 12 penny-weight,

13 grains; and the friction equal to two penny-weight, 2 grains. The foot of the prop is to be distant from the centre of motion 29 inches  $\frac{1}{60}$  parts.

*Case 2.* In which the prop is perpendicular to the bar, exemplified by three experiments.

*Exp. 1.* Now let the prop (still five inches long) be placed so as to be perpendicular to the bar in a point 12 inches distant from the centre of motion. Here the power expressive of the pressure should be 19 ounces, eighteen penny-weight 4 grains; and the friction six penny-weight, 15 grains: But on account of a correction necessary to be made to this (because the bar is thick as well as heavy, and the centre of gravity above the surface to which the prop is applied the power or pressure sustained will be only 19 ounces, one penny-weight, five grains; and the friction six penny-weight 14 grains.

*N. B.* The distance of the foot of the prop in this case 13 inches from the centre.

*Exp. 2.* The prop here is 10 inches long (still perpendicular to the bar) under a point in the bar, 24 inches distant from the centre: The power equal to the pressure sustained should be (if the bar were only heavy and not thick) nine ounces, 19 penny-weight, four grains; the friction the penny-weight, 11 grains and  $\frac{1}{2}$ ; but with the proper correction, which shall be explained hereafter; it must be on nine ounces, 17 penny-weight, 15 grains; the friction seven penny-weight, seven grains. Here the foot of the prop to be 26 inches from the centre.

*Exp. 3.* If the end of the prop be placed under a point in the bar; so that the horizontal distance of the foot of the prop be exactly equal to the distance of the centre of gravity from the said centre of motion, viz. 5. 20, inches the power or pressure sustained by the prop will be precisely equal to the weight of the bar, viz. 12 ounces, 12 penny-weight, 12 grains. In this case the prop is distant from the centre of motion on the bar 9. 17, nine inches, and the friction four penny-weight, five grains.

*Case 3.* In which the angle formed by the prop with a horizontal line is given, either acute or obtuse.

As this case is very intricate (on account of the several powers of the sine and cosine of the given angle, which multiplied into the prop, and into the weight of the beam) is exemplified only in one experiment; namely, when the

gle, formed by the prop with the horizontal line, contained between the foot of the prop and the centre, is acute ; then there is a *maximum* of pressure, which the Doctor shews by experiment to be the very same with that given by the calculation. He supposes the angle formed by the prop and the horizontal line to be 60 degrees : The calculation of this *maximum* shews, that if the prop be 10 inches long, the distance measured upon the bar, to which the upper end of the prop must be applied, will be 10 inches  $\frac{26}{75}$  parts, the bar itself forming then an angle of about 52 degrees, 12 minutes ; and the horizontal distance between the centre of motion and the foot of the prop is then 11 inches  $\frac{72}{75}$  parts.

*N.B.* Three things are to be remarked in this case.

1. That when the angle, made by the prop and horizontal line, contained between the centre of motion and foot of the prop, is acute, as in the last experiment, there is always a *maximum* : Whereas if the same angle were obtuse, there would be no positive *maximum* : For, then the pressure would continually increase, the nearer the prop is to the centre of motion.

2. That when the angle of the prop with the horizon is acute, as in the last experiment, the bar, or long and heavy body, can be rais'd, by applying the power or prop always with the same angle to the horizon, quite up to a vertical situation.

3. That the first case, which is when the prop is perpendicular to the horizon, is only a particular case of this more general one.

*Case 4.* Is when the angle, made by the prop with that part of the beam, contain'd between the point to which it is applied, and the centre of motion, is given either acute or obtuse.

As the expression of the power in this case is fully as intricate as in the last, the Doctor gives only one example or experiment ; and for the greater satisfaction of those who see it, he chose that wherein the pressure is in its *maximum*. He supposes, as before, the angle made by the prop (still 10 inches long) with that part of the beam contained between the point to which it is applied, and the centre of motion, to be acute and of 60 degrees ; then the *maximum* of pressure will be, when the part of the beam intercepted between the centre of motion and the upper end of the prop is 12 inches  $\frac{11}{75}$  parts ; the bar is then elevated about 50 degrees 13 minutes ; and the horizontal distance between the centre of motion

motion and the foot of the prop is then 11 inches,  $\frac{2}{3}$  parts.

*N. B.* The same things are also to be remark'd in the case as in the preceding.

1. If the angle made by the prop and the part of the beam intercepted between the point of application and the centre of motion, be acute, there will always be a *maximum*. The contrary, if that angle be obtuse.

2. If the angle be acute, the bar cannot be rais'd up to a vertical situation by applying the power or prop constantly with the same acute angle; but it may be rais'd quite up, if the angle of the prop with the beam be obtuse.

3. The 2d case is but a particular case of this general one.

*An Account of the Peruvian or Jesuits Bark; by Mr. William Arrot. Phil. Trans. N° 446. p. 81.*

THE tree from which the *Jesuits Bark* is cut (Mr. Arrot himself having gather'd it) grows in the kingdom of Peru, in the *Spanish West-Indies*; and most commonly found in the provinces of *Loxa*, *Ayavaca* and *Quenca*, situated between two and five degrees of south Latitude. The tree is tall, and has a trunk rather bigger than a man's thigh tapering from the root upwards, has no boughs or branches till near its top; and these grow as regular as if lopp'd artificially, and with the leaves form exactly the figure of a hemisphere. Its bark is of a blackish colour on the outside, and sometimes mixt with white spots, from whence common grows a kind of moss, which the Spaniards call *barbas*; leaves resemble much the leaves of our plum-tree, of darkish green colour on their upper or concave side, and reddish on their lower or convex side; its wood is as hard as common *English* ash, and rather tough than brittle.

There are 4 sorts of the bark of this tree, to which the Spaniards give the following names, viz. *Cascarilla colorada* or reddish bark; *amarylla*, yellowish; *crespilla*, curling; and *blanca*, whitish: But Mr. Arrot could only find 2 different sorts of the tree; and he believes that the other 2 sorts of the bark are owing to the different climates where it grows and not to a different species of the tree. The bark called *colorada* and *amarylla* is the best, and differs from the *blanca* in this, that the trunk of the former is not nigh so big as that of the latter, the leaves being as describ'd above. Whereas those of the *blanca* are larger, and of a lighter

green colour, and its bark has a very thick spongy substance, whitish on the outside, and is so tough, that it requires the force of an ax to slice it from the tree : It is true, it is as bitter when cut down as the best sort, and has then the same effect in intermitting fevers ; but when dry and long kept, turns quite insipid and good for nothing : And it is to be observed, that both sorts have a much surer and quicker effect in cures, when green, than when dry. As the bad sort is in great plenty, and the best very scarce and hard to be come at, large quantities of late yearly cut, and sent with a little of the fine bark to *Panama* for *Europe*.

The tree of the *crespilla* is the same with that of the *amapilla* and *colorada* ; but grows in a cold frosty climate : By which means the bark is not only alter'd in its quality, but is also whitish on the outside, tho' cinnamon-colour'd within side, and in medicines ought to be rejected. This sort and the *blanca* grow plentifully in the province of *Ayavaca*, 50 leagues from *Piura*, and 62 from *Payta*, a port in the south-sea ; as also in *Cariamango*, *Gonsonama* and *Ximburo*, whence they commonly send it to *Payta*, and there sell it as the best sort. The *blanca* likewise grows in the province of *Quenca*, and in the mountains of *Caxamarea* : But the true and genuine fine Jesuits bark, which is of a reddish or yellowish colour, is only found from 5 to about 14 leagues round the city of *Loxa*, in the province of *Loxa*, which the Spaniards generally call *provincia de las calvas*. This city is situated between two rivers, that run into the great river *Marannon*, or the river of the *Amazons*, and lies about 100 leagues from *Payta*, and in a direct line about 110 leagues south-east from *Guayaquil*, tho' by the common road near 200. The places about *Loxa*, where this fine sort is found, are, *La Sierra de Caxanuma Malacatos*, *Trutafinga*, *Yangana*, *Mansanamace*, *La sierra de Boqueron*, and a place call'd *Las Monsas*.

The bark-trees do not grow altogether in one spot, but intermixt here and there with several others in the woods : It happens, sometimes indeed, that clusters of them are found together, tho' at present they are much scarcer than in former times ; a great many of the fine large bark trees having been entirely cut down, that their bark might be the more easily sliced off.

The soil, where the best sort thrives, is generally in red clayey or rocky ground, and very frequently on the banks of small rivers descending from high mountains.

That this tree flourishes and bears fruit at the same time a  
the year round, is certainly owing to the almost uninterrupted  
rains that fall in those high mountains where it grows, which  
continue with little or no intermission: Tho' about 3 or  
leagues down in the low country, where it is excessively hot,  
there are wet and dry seasons, as in other hot countries; the  
rains beginning in December and ending in May: This season  
the Spaniards, who live there, call *temporal*, and it is general  
all thereabouts; whereas what they call *paroma* is a cold rain  
season, that lasts in all the mountainous places of these coun-  
tries from June to November, but especially in the city of La  
and places adjoining, where Mr. Arrot had pass'd 25 or 30  
days without seeing the sun once; and felt the air so exceeding-  
ly cold, that he was obliged to be always wrapped up in his cloa-  
and to be in continual motion to keep himself warm. So  
excessive cold so near the line appears to Europeans incredib-  
but many places in these latitudes are so, by their situation a  
vicinity to high mountains.

The properest season for cutting the bark is from September  
to November, the only time in the whole year that there  
is some intermission from rain in the mountains. Having dis-  
cover'd a spot where the trees most abound, they first build huts  
for the workmen, and then a large hut in which to put the  
bark, in order to preserve it from the wet: But they let it out  
there as short a time as possible, having before-hand cut a road  
from the place where the trees grow, thro' the woods, sometimes  
3 or 4 leagues, to the nearest plantation or farm-house in the  
low country, whither, if the rain permit them, they carry the  
bark forthwith to dry. These preparations made, they pro-  
vide each Indian (they being the cutters) with a large knife  
and a bag that can hold about 50 pounds of green bark: Eve-  
two Indians take one tree, whence they cut or slice down the  
bark, as far as they can reach from the ground; they then take  
sticks about half a yard long each, which they tie to the tree  
with tough withs at proper distances like the steps of a ladder,  
always slicing off the bark, as far as they can reach, before  
they fix a new step, and thus mount to the top, the Indian be-  
low gathering what the other cuts; this they do by turns, and  
go from tree to tree, till their bag is full; which, when they  
have plenty of trees, is generally a day's work for one Indian.  
As much care as possible must be taken that the bark be not  
wet; should it so happen, it must be carried directly down  
the low country to dry: For, otherwise it loses its colour, turn-

black and rots ; and if it lie any time in the hut without being spread abroad, it runs the same risque : So that while the Indians are cutting, the muscles (if the weather permits) ought to be carrying it down to the place appointed for drying it ; which is done by spreading it abroad in the open air, and frequently turning it.

Mr. Arrot had the curiosity to send upwards of 50 seroons from the woods to the city of *Loxa*, where he put it into a large open house, and dried it under cover, never exposing it either to the sun or night air, imagining that the sun exhal'd a great many of its fine parts ; and that the night air, or *serene*, was very noxious to it : But he found the colour of the bark, thus card'd, not near so bright and lively as that dried in the open air. He is of opinion that a very short time will put an end to this best sort, or at least, that it will be extremely hard to be got, by reason of its distance from any inhabited place, the impenetrability of the woods where it grows, and the scarcity of the Indians to cut it, who, by the Spaniards hard usage and cruelty, are daily diminishing so fast, that in a very few years their race in that country shall be quite extinct.

Mr. Arrot says, that the small bark which curls up like sticks of cinnamon (and which in *England* is much valued, as being cut off the branches ; and therefore reckon'd better and more effectual in curing fevers) is only the bark of the younger trees ; which, as it is very thin, curls in that manner ; and that the bark of the branches would not compensate the trouble and expences of cutting. He likewise affirms, that after the bark is cut off any tree it requires at least 18 or 20 years to grow again ; which is directly contrary to what Dr. Oliver says in *Phil. Trans.* N° 290. He added besides, that its fruit is no ways like a chesnut, as the Dr. informs us in the same *Transaktion* ; but rather like a pod, which incloses a seed somewhat like a hop-seed ; and that he had sent some of them to *England*.

He could not tell by what artifice or stratagem the *Jesuits* had got this bark to be call'd after them, if not that they carried it first into *Europe*, and gave themselves out as the first discoverers of its virtues : But Mr. Arrot assured, that the current opinion at *Loxa* is, that its qualities and use were known to the Indians before ever any Spaniard came among them ; and that it was by them applied in the cure of intermitting fevers, which are frequent over all that wet unhealthy country.

*Observation of the Moon's transit by Aldebaran, at London April 3, 1736; by Dr. Bevis. Phil. Trans. N° 446. p. 90.*

Fig. 17. Plate IX. the glass inverting the objects.

Apparent time.

H. M. S.

- 7 40 0 The moon's body and *Aldebaran* seen together in the distinct base of the telescope.
- 7 45 52 The moon's southern limb running along the parallel thread; the western limb came to the horary thread.
- 7 49 41 The glass remaining fixt, and *Aldebaran* running along the parallel thread (having the same declination with the moon's southern limb) came to the intersection of the threads.
- 8 13 4 The moon again running along the parallel came to the horary thread.
- 8 15 50 *Aldebaran* (the telescope remaining fixt) came to the first oblique thread at *c*.
- 8 15 54  $\frac{1}{2}$  — to the horary thread at *b*.
- 8 15 59 — to the second oblique thread at *a*.
- 8 59 54 *Aldebaran* in the line passing thro' the cusps, his nearest distance from the moon's body being somewhat less than the length of *Mare Crisium*, or  $\frac{1}{4}$  of the moon's diameter nearly.

Fig. 18. represents the visible way of the moon.

*A lunar Eclipse observ'd in Fleet-street, London, Sept. 8, 1736; by Mr. George Graham, and Mr. James Short of Edinburgh. Phil. Trans. N° 446. p. 92.*

September 8, 1736

Apparent time.

H. M. S.

Beginning of the eclipse	12	58	0
The shadow touch'd <i>Grimaldi</i>	13	0	0
— <i>Kepler</i>		9	30
— <i>Copernicus</i>		17	10
— the east side of <i>Tycho</i>		25	5
— the east side of <i>Plato</i>		34	30
— the east side of <i>Manilius</i>		36	40
— the east side of <i>Mare Crisium</i>		56	20
Beginning of total darkness	14	3	45

The

The observation was made with a 5  $\frac{1}{2}$  inches reflecting telescope, magnifying about 38 times.

A total Eclipse of the Moon observ'd Sept. 8, 1736, O. S. in Covent-Garden, London; by Dr. Bevis. Phil. Trans. N° 446. p. 93. Translated from the Latin.

The observation was made with a 5 foot telescope.

Apparent time

H. M. S.

- ii 53 25 The *penumbra* tinges the north-east limb of the moon: The sky serene.
- 54 25 The *penumbra* now pretty sensible: Serene.
- 56 50 The true shadow, as far as the Dr. could judge, touches the moon's limb: Serene.
- 57 30 The shadow touches *Grimaldi*; serene.
- 00 25 The shadow covers *Grimaldi*: The sky pretty serene.
- 7 23 It enters *Mare humorum*; observ'd thro' thin clouds: Afterwards the clouds became very thick.
- 28 39 The shadow touches *Mare vaporum*: Serene.
- 31 19 The darken'd part of the moon is seen of a red-dish colour, as it were: The sky exceeding serene.
- 36 53 The limit of the shadow bisects *Manilius*, and touches *Mare serenitatis*. Exceeding serene.
- 38 48 It touches *Mare tranquillitatis*: Serene.
- 47 21 *Mare serenitatis* cover'd: Serene.
- 55 26 The shadow touches *Mare Crisium*: Serene.
- 58 5 *Mare fœcunditatis* cover'd: Serene.
- 4 2 25 The total immersion of the moon.  
Very thick clouds come on; and the moon is no longer seen, till
- 43 0 *Mare tranquillitatis*, as it appears, entirely emerged — thro' the breaks of the clouds.
- 43 30 Clouds again.
- 1 3 22 The cloud going off, the moon seem'd entirely clear.

The clock was adjusted to true time by equal altitudes of the sun, and its agreeing with Mr. Graham's was mark'd, by means of a very good pocket-watch.

*A total Eclipse of the Moon observed at Wittemberg  
Saxony, September 8, 1736, O. S. in the Morning;  
M. Weidler. Phil. Trans. N° 446. p. 94. Translated  
from the Latin.*

H. M. S.

- 1 36 o The penumbra comes on the eastern part of the moon like a smoke or fog.
- 1 50 o The beginning.
- 1 50 30 The shadow comes to *Grimaldi*.
- 1 52 o —— touches *Galileus*.
- 2 0 o —— *Kepler*.
- 2 1 30 *Kepler* entirely cover'd.
- 2 7 o The portion of the moon's disk, that is deeper immersed in the shadow, appears brighter than the nearer the edge of the shadow.
- 2 8 o The shadow comes to *Copernicus*.
- 10 50 —— entirely covers *Copernicus*.
- 16 10 The shadow comes to *Tycho*.
- 20 o Half the moon obscur'd.
- 25 o The shadow comes to *Mare serenitatis*.
- 29 10 —— to *Menelaus*.
- 36 o *Mare serenitatis* entirely cover'd.  
At this time the moon appears red thro' the shadow like a live-coal.
- 45 30 The shadow comes to *Mare Crisium*.  
At this time the edge of the shadow about *Mare Crisium* is inwardly incurvated.  
And all the time of the eclipse the periphery of the shadow is rough and distinguished by several prominences; and in the extremity it is seen compassed as with a thin smoke.
- 50 o *Mare Crisium* entirely cover'd.
- 53 o Total obscuration.  
At this time about a third part of the moon's disk towards the east appears darker than the western part.
- 3 43 o The shadow appears denser in the middle, and more dilute towards the extremities.
- 4 8 o The moon is cover'd with clouds.
- 4 44 o The emersion of the moon out of the shadow.
- 4 45 o The shadow goes off *Grimaldi*.

Clouds afterwards hid the moon; and tho' she emerged again out of them, yet a fog or rarer cloud darkens her in such manner, that the *ma-*  
*cule* could not be distinguish'd: At length the moon is entirely hid by denser clouds.

The observation was made with a telescope of 8  
Paris feet,

A lunar Eclipse observ'd Sept. 8, 1736, in Hudson's-bay; by  
Capt. Christopher Middleton. Phil. Trans. N° 446. p. 96.

CAPT. Middleton, being in *Hudson's-bay* (in Lat. 55 degrees, 34 minutes, north, and on the meridian of the *north bear island*, which lies 30 miles to the westward of *Charlton*) observed a total eclipse of the moon on Sept. 8, 1736: The weather was very clear; but the motion of the sea render'd his telescope useless, and he miss'd the beginning.

## H. M.

The total immersion of the moon's body into the shadow.	—	—	—	8	22	{ by his watch
The emersion	—	—	—	10	8	by ditto
The end	—	—	—	11	16	by ditto

In order to rectify his watch, and be sure of the true time, he took 3 several altitudes next morning, and one in the afternoon, by Mr. Hadley's and Mr. Smith's quadrants; which (having made proper allowances for the refraction of the atmosphere and the height he stood above the surface of the sea) were, as follows,

	Deg.	Min.	H. M.
First altitude	23	0	{ hence the true time } 8 49 —
Latitude	55	45	{ the time by the watch } 8 28
			Watch too slow 0 21 —

Deg.

	Deg. Min.	H. Min.
Second altitude	25 48	{ The true time therefore, is } 9 15 -
Latitude	55 45	{ The time by the watch } 8 54
		Watch too slow o 21 -
Third altitude	26 44	{ The true time, therefore, is } 9 24
Latitude	55 45	{ The time by the watch } 9 3
		Watch too slow o 21 -
The fourth altitude taken the same day in the afternoon	21 29	{ Hence the true time is } 3 25 -
Latitude	55 33	{ The time by the watch } 3 04
		Watch too slow o 21 -

If, therefore, 21 minutes be added to the times above-mention'd for the error of the watch, we shall have the true time of the several observations on the meridian of the *north-bear-island*, as follows, *viz.*

	H. M.
The total immersion of the moon's body into the shadow	8
The emersion	10
The end	11

This same eclipse was observ'd Sept. 8, 1738. by Dr. *Ber* at *London*; and he made the true time of the total immersion of the moon's body into the shadow, 14 hours, 2 minutes, 2 seconds; consequently, the difference of longitude between *London* and *North-bear-island* in *Hudson's bay* is 5 hours, 25 minutes, 25 seconds, or 79 degrees, 51 minutes.

*Solar eclipse observed at London, Sept. 23, 1736; By Dr. Bevis. Phil. Trans. N°. 446. p. 98. Translated from the Latin.*

App. time, P. M.

H. M. S.

- 12 35 The northern limb of the sun (Fig. 19. Plate IX.) running along the parallel thread P. P. his western limb touches the horary thread H. H.
- 12 42 The little macula near the northern limb comes to the first oblique thread 1.
- 13 1 The macula at the horary thread H. H.
- 13 20 The macula at the second oblique thread 2.
- 14 45 The eastern limb of the sun at the horary thread : afterwards clouds.
- 15 41 The sun emerging out of the clouds ; the eclipse, it is true, is begun by the telescope, but now scarcely seen begun.
- 15 48 It is still imperceptible to the naked eye through a colour'd glass.
- 16 0 Now it is pretty sensible. Then clouds.
- 15 29 The southern limb (Fig. 20.) running along the parallel, the western limb at the horary thread.
- 15 41 The western cusp of the sun at the horary thread.
- 15 5 The eastern cusp at the horary thread.
- 15 59 The eastern limb at the horary thread.  
Then the sun is overcast with clouds till its setting.  
The Dr. puts the beginning at 4 h. 45 m. 31 sec.  
p. m.

*Occultation of Mars by the Moon, observed in Fleet-street, London, Oct. 7, 1736, by Mr. George Graham. Phil. Trans. N°. 446. p. 100.*

THE observation was made with a refracting telescope of 12 foot.

Apparent time.

H. M. S.

- 14 24 44 Mars appeared above half covered ; but a distinct view could not be had for flying clouds.
- 14 25 21 Mars entirely covered, the last ray of light being then lost.

Apparent time.

H. M. S.

15 11 22 The moon appeared, but Mars was not seen, no part being yet emerged.

15 15 11 He judged it was quite emerged; but clouds hindered the moon's limb from being distinctly seen.

*The same observed in Covent-Garden, London, Oct. 7, 1736.*  
by Dr. Bevis. Phil Trans. N°. 446. p. 101.

BEFORE the eclipse, Dr. Bevis took several differences of right ascension and declination between Mars and  $\mu$  Pisces, for ascertaining the true place of that planet.

App. time, P. M.

H. M. S.

14 24 10 The Dr. was surprised to see Mars continue quite round, tho' hardly, to appearance, disjoined from the scabrous edge of the moon: But the instant he thought it began to lose its figure, Clouds.

14 25 26 The moon shone out bright again; but Mars entirely vanished.

15 14 46 The moon being just clear of a cloud, he saw Mars partly emerged.

15 14 49 Mars seemed just half out: Then clouds again so that he did not see the final contact.

The moon's diameter was 21,157 parts of the micrometer; and its illuminated part passed over the horary thread in 2 m. 3 sec.

The Dr. is certain of the time to 2 or 3 sec.

*A Transit of Mercury over the Sun, observed in Fleet-street, London, Oct. 31, 1736. by Mr. George Graham. Phil Trans. N°. 446. p. 102.*

App. time, A. M.

H. M. S.

At 9 22 o Mercury not yet seen; then clouds.

25 37 Mr. Graham first saw Mercury for a few seconds; and judged he was got intirely within the sun's disk, or perhaps a little more. Then clouds again, with some intervals of few moments between, which allowed a sight of Mercury about three or four several times.

App. time, A. M.  
H. M. S.

then quite cloudy till near 12, when he had a sight of the sun for a few minutes, and took his transit upon the meridian; at which time *Mercury* was judged to be about two of his diameters, or a little more, within the sun's disk, and a little past the vertical line.

11 10 27 He had again a sight of the sun, but *Mercury* was gone off.

[*Transit of Mercury over the Sun, at the Observatory of Bononia, Nov. 9, 1736, N. S. in the morning; by S. Manfredi. Phil. Trans. N°. 446. p. 103: Translated from the Latin.*]

In the highest room of the observatory, S. Zanotti directed towards the sun a very good telescope of Campani's, of 22 Bononian feet in length, to observe, if possible, the very ingress of *Mercury* on the sun's limb; and others from other parts of the observatory directed shorter telescopes for the same purpose. The sky was very clear; and there was not a breath of wind stirring. S. Roverius had the good fortune first of all to discover the planet at the sun's limb at 22<sup>h</sup> 8' 37" p. m. and immediately determine his interior contact with the sun at 22<sup>h</sup> 11' 12". The clocks were adjusted for the same days to the meridian line, which Zanotti had several times compared with the sun by equal altitudes morning and evening.

Other observers found the planet somewhat later on the sun's limb; and S. Manfredi, directing from a lower room an 11 foot telescope of Campani's, did not see the planet before 22<sup>h</sup> 9' 5"; when now it touched the sun with a pretty considerable part of its body; but its interior contact by the same telescope was at 22<sup>h</sup> 10' 53". But the former observation is much more certain, as having been taken with a better instrument; yet since it appeared from the times of the planet's going off, as shall be mentioned anon, that it spent therein 3' 16", if we subtract so much from the time of interior contact observed by Roverius, the exterior contact, or the first appulse of *Mercury* to the sun will be still more certain, namely 22<sup>h</sup> 7' 56":

Afterwards the observations were made with a view to find some points of the visible path of the planet on the sun's disk: All these points were referred to the horary circle, as also to the parallel drawn thro' the sun's centre, according to Cassini's Method.

thod, marking the times by a clock, in which the sun's limb and *Mercury* passed the horary thread of the micrometer: And the latter besides passed the oblique threads, whilst the sun with his northern limb grafted along the parallel thread itself. With an eight foot telescope *Zanotti* found a great many such points and S. *Manfredi* one or two, with a six foot telescope, fitted with an exquisite micrometer, invented by the celebrated S. *Mirionius*, *Cesarean-Mathematician*, and presented by him to the observatory. With the same telescope both S. *Roversius* and D. *Perelli* determined some other points. And to this likewise referable the observation made by the latter in the meridian with a mural semicircle, whereby the right ascension of the planet was found greater by 11 seconds of time and  $\frac{1}{2}$ ; and its declination less by 58 seconds and  $\frac{1}{2}$  than that of the sun's centre. Besides, *Zanotti* took upon himself to describe the positions of the more remarkable maculæ, which were seen in greater numbers that day on the sun. It was easy to distinguish the planet from these maculæ, both as it was exactly round, and very black, and surrounded with no *areola*.

As to *Mercury*'s egress, S. *Algarotti*, who came to Bonon in order to view this phænomenon, observed with an eight foot telescope the beginning at 50 min. 1 sec. p. m. the end at 53 min. 6 sec. But S. *Manfredi* with the 11 foot telescope above mentioned observed the beginning at 51 min. 7 sec. and the end 53 min. 44 sec. *Roversius* with a 14 foot telescope only observed the end at 54 min. 1 sec. But these observations are less certain, both as the telescopes were but indifferent, and as a wind arising at that time disturbed them a little. Therefore the observation with the 22 foot telescope, whereby S. *Francus Vandelius* determined the interior contact at 50° 50" at the exterior at 54° 6", is to be preferred to all the others: When the *mora* of the planet on the sun's limb was 3' 16", and the time of the egress of the centre 52° 28", which according to *Manfredi*'s observation should be 52° 25".

Thus far the observations themselves: Now S. *Manfredi* comes to what may be deduced from comparing them together. Assuming the sun's diameter 52 min. 34 sec. and the time of his transit over the horary circles 2 min. 17 sec (which numbers are exhibited in the tables of modern astronomers, and verified by the observations themselves) the points of the planetary path defined by observation are presented Fig. 21. Plate IX. And since by reason of the small errors in the observations all the points did not exac-

fall into the same right line, there was no fitter way of reconciling them than by supposing a perpendicular drawn from the centre of the sun to the path of the planet to form an angle with the horary circle of 23 degrees, 40 min. to the east; and put the length of that perpendicular from the centre to the path itself 13 min. 58" to the north. From these all the rest was calculated as follows :

	H.	M.	S.
The beginning of mercury's ingress upon the sun's disk	3	22	7 56
The ingress of the centre	22	9	34
The total ingress	22	11	12
<hr/>			
The beginning of the egress	0	50	50
The egress of the centre	0	52	28
The total egress	0	54	6
<hr/>			
The <i>Mora</i> of mercury's centre on the sun's disk	3	2	42 54
The <i>Semi-mora</i>	1	21	27
The time of the mean transit	23	31	1
<hr/>			
Deg. Min. Sec			
The angle of the perpendicular to the path of the planet with the horary circle, determin'd by the observations to the east.	23	40	0
The angle of the eclips. with the horary circle from astronomical tables to the east	105	43	0
Thence the angle of the ecliptic with the perpendicular to the apparent path of mercury	82	8	8
And the angle of the apparent path with the ecliptic	7	52	0
<hr/>			
The distance of the path from the centre of the sun found by the observations to the north	0	13	58
The sun's semi-diameter	0	16	17
The length of the path within the sun's disk	0	16	45
The half of that length	0	8	22
From			

	H.	'
From these the horary motion of mercury in the apparent path	S	o 6
The apparent horary motion in the ecliptic	S	o 6
Hence the portion of the path between the middle of the transit and the conjunction	S	o 1
The portion of the path from the ingress till the conjunction	S	o 10
The portion of the same from the conjunction till the egress	S	o 6
The difference of the longitude of mercury and the sun in the ingress	S	o 10
The difference of longitude in the egress	S	o 6
The time from the middle of the transit till the conjunction	S	o 19
The very time of the conjunction at Bononia true time	S	23 50
mean time	23	34
The longitude of the sun and mercury in the very conjunction according to Cassini's tables	S	19 23 of scorpio
With this longitude corresponds within four seconds an observation made the same day by S. Peter Lilius with meridian gnomon at S. Petronio's church.		
The latitude of mercury in the ingress north	o	12 3
Lat. in the egress north.	o	14 5
Thence the horary motion in lat.	o	0 5
And the lat. in the very conjunction north	o	14
Hence the interval of time from the transit of mercury thro' the ascending node till the conjunction	S	16 39
The very time of the transit thro' the node true time	S	7 11
mean time	6	55

Deg. ' "

According to Cassini's tables, the motion of mercury in his orbit, seen from the sun in the space of  $16^{\text{h}} 39'$  about this time, or the argument of latitude in the conjunction

The same motion reduced to the ecliptic

$4^{\circ} 15' 47''$

$4^{\circ} 13' 56''$

Thence the place of the ascending node of mercury seen from the sun

$3^{\circ} 15' 9'' 34''$

of Taurus

The distance of mercury from the sun at the time of conjunction according to Cassini's tables

Log. 449301

The distance of the earth from the sun according to the same tables

Log. 499503

Deg. ' "

Hence the N. latitude of mercury at the time of conjunction, seen from the sun

$3^{\circ} 0' 30'' 31''$

Whence the inclination of mercury's orbit to the ecliptic

$3^{\circ} 6' 51'' 0''$

The time from the interior to the exterior contact of mercury at his going off, by observation

H  $0' 3'' 16''$

The portion of the path run over by mercury in this time.

$3^{\circ} 0' 0'' 20''$

The angle of the path with the sun's semi-diameter in the egress

$3^{\circ} 58' 30'' 0''$

Thence the apparent diameter of mercury very nearly.

$3^{\circ} 0' 0'' 10''$

The transit of Mercury over the Sun, Nov. 11. 1736. N. S. observed by M. Weidler. Phil. Transf. N° 446. p. 110.

HO the uncertain state of the weather was some hindrance to a compleat observation of the transit of mercury

over the sun, Nov. 11. 1736. N. S. Yet what M. Weidler observ'd, he thought proper not to deprive others of; chiefly because it did not appear to him, that this phenomenon had hitherto been observ'd with better success.

Mercury appeared within the sun's eastern limb, as represented, Fig. 22. Plate IX.

## H. M. S.

10	49	20	at	1
11	36	0	mercury about	2
11	52	20	at	3
12	2	30		4
12	4	30		5
	44	20		6
	52	45		7

*Observations made at Oxford on the Comet that appeared in January, February, and March, 1737; by Mr. James Bradley. Phil. Trans. N° 446. p. 111.*

M R. Bradley made several observations on the late Comet, during the last five weeks of its appearance which enabled him to find out the elements of a parabolic trajectory, upon which a calculus might be founded that would correspond with each of his observations within about a minute of a degree: But the first of them being taken many days after the time of the *perihelion*, and the whole series comprehending but a small portion of the trajectory; it was sensible that a little error, either in the observation themselves, or in the places of the fixt stars, with which the comet was compar'd, might occasion a considerable difference in the situation and magnitude, &c. of the orbit, deduced from them alone: And therefore he was desirous of having some earlier and accurate observations, in order to determine those elements with more certainty: But not having hitherto been able to procure such, he now communicates the particulars of his own, together with the comparison between the observed places of the comet, and those computed from such elements as he has already collected from his own observations.

He first saw the comet on the 15th of February, 1737, between six and seven in the evening, when its nucleus appear'd small and indistinct; and its tail (extending above a degree from the body) pointed towards the star *in lino austral. Pisces*, mark'd  $\xi$  by Bayer. Upon applying his micrometer to a good seven foot telescope, he observ'd, that at seven hours, 32 min. equat. time, the comet preceded the said star one degree, one minute, 40 seconds in right ascension, and was 20 minutes, 20 seconds, more southerly than the star.

*Note.* That the equal time is likewise made use of in all the following observations.

Assuming the place of this star, as settled in the *British Catalogue* (as Mr. Bradley likewise does the places of others hereafter mention'd) it follows, that the comet's right ascension was 23 degrees, 58 minutes; and its declination 1 deg. 31 min. 55 seconds north.

February 17. 7 hours, 33 min. the comet follow'd  $\alpha$  in node *in Piscium* 31 min. 25 seconds in Right Ascension; and was 32 min. 30 seconds more northerly: Hence the comet's Right Ascension was 27 deg. 38 min. 20 seconds; and its declination 1 deg. 21 min. 10 sec. north.

February 18. 7 hours 14 min. a small star (whose Right Ascension was afterwards found to be 29 deg. 5 seconds; and declination 2 deg. 58 min. 30 sec. north) preceded the comet 14 min. in Right Ascension; and was 15 min. 30 sec. more northerly. Hence the comet's Right Ascension was 29 deg. 14 min. 5 sec. and its declination 2 deg. 34 min. north.

February 21. 7 hours, 25 min. the comet preceded  $\nu$  *Ceti* 1 deg. 6 min. in Right Ascension; and was 38 min. 20 sec. more southerly. Hence the comet's Right Ascension was 34 deg. 25 min. 10 sec. and its declination 3 deg. 47 min. 20 sec. north.

Feb. 22. 7 hours, 45 min. the comet follow'd  $\nu$  *Ceti* 30 min. sec. in Right Ascension; and was 18 min. 45 sec. more southerly: Hence the comet's Right Ascension was 36 deg. 1 min. 15 sec. and its declination 4 deg. 6 min. 55 sec. north.

Feb. 25. 7 hours 45 min. a small star (whose Right Ascension was afterwards found to be 40 deg. 34 min. and declination 1 deg. 5 min. 30 sec. north) follow'd the comet 2 min. 30 sec. in Right Ascension; and was 2 min. 30 sec. more northerly than the comet: Hence the comet's Right Ascension was 40 deg. 31 min. 30 sec. and its declination 5 deg. 3 min. north.

The difference of Right Ascension and declination between this star and the comet was taken with a fifteen foot telescope; but the place of the star was determin'd by one observation made with the 7 foot telescope.

Feb. 27. 8 hours 45 min. the comet preceded a small star 1 deg. 16 min. in Right Ascension; and was 2 min. 15 sec. more southerly. The Right Ascension of this star was afterwards (by a single observation) found to be 44 deg. 37 min. 30 sec. and its declination 5 deg. 38 min. 30 sec. north: Hence the comet's Right Ascension 43 deg. 21 min. 40 sec. and its declination 5 deg. 36 min. 15 sec. north.

*Mar. 4.* 8 hours a small star (whose Right Ascension was found to be 49 deg. 30 min. 30 sec. and its declination 6 deg. 38 min. 30 sec. north) preceded the comet 7 min. 30 sec. in Right Ascension; and was 10 min. more southerly: Hence the Right Ascension of the comet was 49 deg. 38 min. and its declination 6 deg. 48 min. 30 sec.

*Mar. 12.* 8 hours 25 min. the comet precede'd  $\mu$  of Tauri 2 deg. 3 min. 50 sec. in Right Ascension; and was 4 min. 25 sec. more northerly than the star: Hence the comet's Right Ascension was 58 deg. 12 min. 40 sec. and its declination 8 deg. 16 min. 30 sec. north.

*Mar. 14.* 9 hours the comet follow'd the 47th star of Tauri in Brit. Catal. 12 min. 50 sec. in Right Ascension and was 15 sec. more northerly than the star: Hence the comet's Right Ascension was 60 deg. 8 min. 5 sec. and its declination 8 deg. 34 min. 5 sec. north. This and all the following observations were made with a good 15 foot telescope; the comet now appearing too faint to be well observ'd with the 7 foot telescope.

*Mar. 17.* 8 hours 40 min. the comet follow'd  $\gamma$  of Tauri 25 min. 5. sec. in Right Ascension; and was 9 min. 40 sec. more northerly: Hence its Right Ascension was 62 deg. 47 min. 55 sec. and its declination 8 deg. 58 min. 45 sec. north.

*Mar. 19.* 7 hours 50 min. the comet follow'd the same star 2 deg. 4 min. 50. sec. in Right Ascension, being 23 min. 55 sec. more northerly: Hence its Right Ascension was 64 deg. 27 min. 40 sec. and declination 9 deg. 13 min. north.

The same night at 9 hours the comet preceded  $\delta$  of Tauri 47 min. 40 sec. in Right Ascension; and was 22 min. 50 sec. more southerly: Hence its Right Ascension was 64 deg. 30 min. 20 sec. and declination 9 deg. 12 min. 35 sec. north.

*Mar. 20.* 8 hours 5 min. the comet preceded  $\delta$  of Tauri 30 sec. in Right Ascension; and was 16 min. 35 sec. more southerly than the star: Hence its Right Ascension was 65 deg. 37 min. 30 sec. and declination 9 deg. 18 min. 50 sec. north.

*Mar. 22.* 8 hours 15 min. the comet follow'd the same star 1 deg. 36 min. 10 sec. in Right Ascension; and was 3 min. 50 sec. more southerly: Hence its Right Ascension was 66 deg. 54 min. 10 sec. and declination 9 deg. 31 min. 35 sec. north.

This was the last night Mr. Bradley saw the comet: For, moon, being then in her increase, entirely obstructed its farther appearance. The light of the comet was indeed (even in moon's absence) so very weak, that he found it difficult in several of the latter observations, to take its place with any tolerable certainty.

certainty; which is, in part, the cause of some little disagreement observable in the comet's places, taken from the same stars on different nights; tho' there are likewise other irregularities that occur in this series of observations, which seem to arise from small errors in the assumed places of the fixt stars.

Supposing the trajectory describ'd by this comet to be nearly parabolical, conformable to what Sir Isaac Newton has deliver'd in the third book of his *Princip. Mathem.* Mr. Bradley gathers from the foregoing observations, that the motion of this comet in its own orbit was direct; and that it was in its perihelion Jan. 19. 8 hours 20 min. equat. time at London. That the inclination of the plane of the trajectory to the ecliptic was 18 deg. 20 min. 45 sec. The place of the descending node 16 deg. 22 min. of Taurus. The place of the perihelion 25 deg. 55 min. of Aquarius. The distance of the perihelion from the descending node 80 deg. 27 min. The logarithm of the perihelion distance from the sun 9.347960. The logarithm of the diurnal motion 0.938188.

From these elements (by the help of Dr. Halley's general table for comets, to which they are adapted) Mr. Bradley computed the places in the following table; which also contains the longitudes and latitudes of the comet, calculated from the observ'd Right Ascensions and declinations above-mention'd, together with the differences between the observed and computed places.

## MEMOIRS of the

equat. time at Oxford.			observed long. of the comet.			South. Lat. observ'd.		
D.	H.	M.	D.	M.	S.	D.	M.	S.
<i>Feb. 15</i>	7	32	$\sqrt{22}$	45	7	7	53	27
	17	7	26	30	30	8	27	21
	18	7	28	18	14	8	44	20
	21	7	26	34	9	26	50	
	22	7	5	4	53	9	40	00
<i>Mar. 4</i>	7	45	9	42	18	10	12	21
	8	45	12	36	43	10	31	42
	8	00	19	3	00	11	6	46
	8	25	27	49	58	11	43	3
	9	00	29	47	42	11	49	59
<i>17</i>	8	40	II 2	30	57	II	56	31
	7	50	4	12	36	12	00	19
	9	00	4	15	11	12	1	12
	8	5	5	3	10	12	3	5
	8	15	6	41	30	12	6	15

computed Long. of the comet.			S. Lat. computed.			Diff. of	Diff. of
D.	M.	S.	D.	M.	S.	Long.	Lat.
$\sqrt{22}$	45	00	7	53	1	+	7
	26	30	8	28	6	-	14
	28	17	8	43	57	+	28
	3	26	9	26	46	-	19
	5	5	9	39	27	-	35
	9	41	10	12	22	+	59
	12	36	10	31	13	+	27
	19	3	11	7	8	-	5
	27	49	11	43	19	+	5
	29	47	19	11	49	+	23
<i>II 2</i>	30	50	11	56	49	+	7
	4	12	12	00	47	-	9
	4	15	12	00	52	-	2
	5	3	12	2	33	-	22
	6	41	12	5	42	+	11

From the small differences between the comet's observ'd and computed places, exhibited in the two last columns of this table,

ble, we may reasonably conclude, that the orbit, as above determin'd, cannot differ much from the truth, and must therefore be near enough to enable future astronomers to distinguish this comet upon another return, and thereby settle its period; which Mr. Bradley could not then pretend to do, not having met with an account of any former comet that seemed likely to have been the same with this, of which a description has been given particular enough to determine this point.

*A Comet observed in February, 1737, from the Aventine-hill at Rome; by the Abbé de Revillas. Phil. Trans. N° 446. p. 118. Translated from the Latin.*

ON the 16. of February, 1737, about 7 o'clock p. m. the comet appear'd for the first time in the western part of the heavens, 8 or 9 degrees lower than *Venus*, and declining a little towards the south from her vertical circle. With the naked eye nothing was observed but a small whitish line, that shone with a faint light; yet with a very good telescope of *Campans's*, of 6 foot, besides the tail, which extended to the opposite part from the sun, and appear'd like a small line without the telescope, was likewise espied the *nucleus*, tho' encompassed all round with a thin atmosphere. As there was then no quadrant at hand, and not only a fog intercept'd, but the twilight deprived the view of the neighbouring fixt stars, the apparent place of the comet could not be determined for that night.

From the 16. till the 19. as also after the 25. there happen'd other impediments, which hinder'd making observations. Moreover, in the nights between the 19. and 26, the Abbé could not otherways determine the apparent place of the comet than by comparing the phenomenon with *Venus*; in regard he only employ'd a small quadrant, whose tube was scarce an English foot in length. From the vertical altitudes, therefore, both of the comet and *Venus* observed at the same time, were collected the vertical differences of both, as follows.

D. H. M. p. m. Vert. Differ.

Deg. M.

20	7	59	5	22
22	7	0	3	56
23	7	20	3	13
24	6	15	2	30
25	7	30	1	47

On the 22d the tail of the comet pass'd along the vertical thread of the micrometer in 1 minute, 7 sec. of time. The micrometer was fitted to the above telescope of Campani.

D. H. M.

24	8	3	Venus and the comet appear'd under an angle of	Deg. 1 7
25	7	50	They appear'd under an angle of	8

*Observations on the Comet seen in January and February 1736-7; and an Eclipse of the Sun, Feb. 18, 1736-7 Philadelphia in Pennsylvania; by Dr. Kearsly. Phil. Trans. N° 446. p. 119.*

**O**N the 27. of Jan. 1736-7, about 6 in the evening, Dr. Kearsly observ'd a dull star about 3 or 4 degrees above *Mercury*, and a little to the southward of a vertical pass thro' that planet; but he took little notice of it then, not thinking of a comet: But by comparing *Mercury's* place with sixt stars, he afterwards thought it might be a comet.

On the 31. about 6 hours 30 min. p. m. he took its distance from *Venus*, by a reflecting telescope of Mr. Hadley's, 14 deg. 40 min. but by a forestaff, 14 deg. 50 min. and a right line pass'd over the comet, *Venus*, and the *Pleiades*.

The night following about 6 hours 20 min. its distance from *Venus* was, by Mr. Hadley's instrument, 13 deg. 25 min.

The rest of his observations, by such instruments as he had, being none of the best, and the comet growing very dim, are as follows.

D. H. M. p. m.

Feb. 7.	6	47	The comet distant from <i>Venus</i>	Deg. 1
7	3	—	from <i>Aldebaran</i>	59
			— from <i>Algenib</i> (by a forestaff)	17
			A right line drawn from the comet over <i>Venus</i> pass'd over the bright star in the side of <i>Perseus</i> .	3

D. H. M.

Feb. 11.	7	14	The comet distant from <i>Venus</i>	Deg. 1
7	20	—	A right line over the comet, <i>Venus</i> , and the head of <i>Cassiopeia</i> .	3

D.H. M.

Feb. 17 7 20 The comet was in a right line, and to the northward of two stars; the distance of the stars the Dr. suppos'd might be 40 min. and the comet from the least of them 30 min: These stars, he thinks, were the south node of *Pisces*; brightest from *Venus* 10 deg. 20 min. from *Aldebaran* 50 deg. 30 min. as he found it set down; but it must be very false.

No star within sight of the comet (by the telescope).

10 30	7 The comet distant from <i>Aldebaran</i>	34	•
about 30	— from <i>lucida cap. ariet.</i>	19	30
	8 Wanted about a degree of <i>occulus ceti</i> ;		
	which was the last sight he had of it.		

The eclipse could not be well observ'd at *Philadelphia*, by reason of clouds: The Dr. rectified his clock by one of *Heath's* large ring-dials.

At 7 hours 18 min. there was a small dent in the sun's edge; whence the beginning was 1 or 2 minutes sooner.

Just before the end, viz. at 10 hours 11 or 12 min. he had a sight of the sun again; and there was then a dent in the sun's edge: So that the end must be at 10 hours 13 or 14 min. in the morning.

About the middle of the eclipse there was a large spot near the middle of the enlightened part, which was the north side of the sun.

Comet seen in *Jamaica* in January, 1736-7; by Dr. Rose Fuller. Phil. Trans. N° 446. p. 122.

AT *Spanish town Jamaica* there was the appearance of a comet, which was first perceiv'd about the 26. of Jan. 1736-7; but it must, by its plainness then, have been visible for some time before.

It was first of all in the west, some degrees below and directly under *Venus*: Every night it appear'd nearer to that star, but inclin'd northerly: In about a fortnight it was parallel to it; and in a week after, it was no more to be seen.

*A Comet seen at Madras, Feb. 1736. 7 O. S; by M. Sartorius.*  
Phil. Trans. N° 446. p. 122.

**F**OR 7 days preceding the 9. of Feb. 1736. 7 O. S. about in the evening there appear'd a dim comet, as it was take to be: It was seen in the west, under *Venus* to the S. W.

Thro' a telescope of 10 or 11 feet it looked like a dim pale planet; its tail tended upwards.

*An Observation of the Comet seen at Lisbon; by Mr. G. R. Vanbrugh, with a Remark by Mr. Machin.* Phil. Trans. N° 446. p. 123.

**J**AN. 29. 1736. 7 on board the *Barford* Man of War, lying at *Lisbon* at 6 hours 49 min. p. m. was seen a comet with long brush tail; at which time its altitude was found to 5 deg. 15 min. its distance from *Venus* 18 deg. 5 min. and *Venus's* altitude was observ'd 20 deg. 40 min. it bore due west.

Mr. *Machin* remarks, that according to Mr. *Bradley's* obsevations at *Oxford*, the place at the time mentioned ought to have been in Long.  $\lambda 13^{\circ} 21' \frac{1}{3}$  Lat.  $0^{\circ} 29' S.$  so that there seems to have been some mistake in making this observation.

*A Description of some Mammoth's Bones dug up in Siberia together with Observations thereon; by Dr. Breynius.* Phil. Trans. N° 446. p. 124.

**I**N Phil. Trans. N° 403, 404 Sir *Hans Sloane* has given accounts of elephants teeth and bones found under ground. 1728 Dr. *Breynius* was busied about the same matter; especially to prove, that the extraordinary large teeth and bones found under ground, and dug up in several places of *Siberia*, by the name of *Mammoth's* or *Mammut's* teeth and bones were

1. True bones and teeth of some large animals once living and
2. That those animals were elephants, by the analogy of the teeth and bones with the known ones of elephants.
3. That they were brought and left there by the universal deluge.

In 1730 Dr. *Messerschmidt* return'd to *Dantzick* from his travels thro' *Siberia*, and was pleas'd to communicate to Dr. *Breynius* some curious draughts of a very large scull, *dens ex fersus* and *molaris*, with the *os femoris*, belonging to the animal commonly called *Mammoth*, found in *Siberia*; whereby

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Mr Hans Sloane's and Dr. Breynius's assertion, viz. that the teeth and bones, called in *Russia*, *Mammoth's bones*, are the true teeth and bones of elephants, is not only put in a greater light, but demonstrated beyond all doubt.

In 1722 Dr. Messerschmidt found two very large teeth; and upon making an accurate and nice examination of them, one was found to be a *dens molaris*, or grinder, a foot broad, half a foot long, and three inches thick, weighing 8 lb. and 3 oz. pretty entire, and only broken in two pieces, and the extremities of the roots spoil'd. The substance is between that of a bone and a stone, only that on the upper part of the outside, some parallel undulated lines appear, which still retain the enamel of the tooth.

The other is a piece of a *dens exsertus*, or tusk, eight inches long and three inches thick, weighing one pound and six ounces; in some places not differing from ivory, but in others alkin'd like the common *unicornu fossile*.

What *Tibrand Ides* in his travels from *Mosco* to *China* mentions of the *Mammoth's teeth and bones* deserves to be taken notice of; as also the journal of *Laurence Lange's* journey to *China*, to be found in the present state of *Russia*, and the remarks of Capt. *John Bernard Muller*; vide the present state of *Rusland*.

Those above-mention'd, as far as the Dr. knows, are the chief authors that have treated of the *Mammoth's teeth and bones*, as a very remarkable and particular curiosity of *Siberia*.

From the testimonies of the foresaid authors, it appears,

1. That those teeth and bones are found in *Siberia*, chiefly in the northern parts, near the rivers *Jenizea*, *Trugau*, *Monum-sea*, *Lena*, &c. towards the icy sea, at the time the ice has broken the banks of those rivers, so that part of the adjacent mountains fall down; and that they are found in such quantity as is sufficient for trade, and to make a monopoly for the *Czar*, vide the present state of *Rusland*.

2. That sometimes skeletons of this kind are found very near complete.

3. That those teeth and bones are not found always of the same size, but sometimes very large, as *dentes molares*, or grinders, of 20 or 24 pound weight, vide Capt. *Muller in loc. citat.* and *dentes exerti*, two of which weigh'd 400 pound; vide *Tibrand Ides loc. citat.* sometimes of a middle size, as those above-mention'd; and at other times still smaller.

4. That of those teeth, *viz.* *dentes exerti*, some are used ivory, to make combs, boxes, and such other things. Cap. Muller saith (vide *Ysbrand Ides* and Capt. Muller in loc. cit.) that in every respect it resembles the common ivory, being on a little more brittle, and easily turning yellow by the weather or heat.

From these quoted remarks, joined to ocular inspection Dr. Breynius thinks he may advance three things.

1. That those *Mammoth's* teeth and bones are true natural teeth and bones, formerly belonging to very large animals; because they have not only the external figure and proportion, but also the internal structure, analogous to the natural teeth and bones of animals.

2. That those large animals have been elephants; which appears by the figure, structure and bigness of the teeth, accurately agreeing with the grinders and tusks of elephants.

To be convinced hereof, one needs only compare these teeth with the figures of those, dug up some years ago in Ireland, and of those which represent the very natural teeth of elephants, and consider the accurate remarks made by Mr. Molineux and others of the Royal Society thereon.

Nor needs any body doubt, that they are true teeth of elephants, from the uncommon size of the *Mammoth's* teeth above mention'd; because Vertomannus, as the famous Mr. John Ray tells us, has seen in Sumatra a pair of elephants tusks which weigh'd 336 pound: And Terzagius, in *Museo Septentrio-* makes mention of one two yards long and 160 pound weight.

3. That those teeth and bones of elephants were brought together by no other means than that of a deluge, by waves and winds, and left behind after the waters returned into their reservoirs, and were buried in the earth, even near the tops of high mountains. And because we know nothing of any particular extraordinary deluge in those countries, but of the universal deluge of Noah, which we find described by Moses; he thinks it more than probable, that we ought to refer this strange phenomenon to the said deluge. In such manner, may not the holy scripture serve to prove natural history; but the truth of the scripture, which saith that Noah's flood was universal (a thing doubted by many) may be prov'd again by natural history.

Here it is to be noted, that such teeth and bones are likely to be found in several other countries besides Siberia, as Poland, Germany, Italy, England, Ireland, &c. but less common than

Siberia, and not so well preserv'd, but more wasted and calcined, without doubt, by the greater warmth of those climates.

Hither are also to be referr'd the large bones found under ground, or rather tusks of elephants, known by the names of *ebur*, or *unicornu fossile*, which are of the same origin with the *mammoth's* teeth, but different, as they are better preserv'd; and therefore for a great part, have still the natural bony substance, and may serve the workmen as natural ivory, and in some measure the physicians and apothecaries as *ebur*, or *unicornu fossile*.

The following draughts of the above mentioned antediluvian bones of the animal, commonly call'd the *mammoth* of Siberia, or the bones of the fossile skeleton of an elephant, are done to the ancient *Roman* scale contracted.

Fig. I. Plate X. exhibits a front view of the head; it weighs 130 pound, three ounces, five drachms, and one scruple apothecary weight, or 152 *Russian* pounds.

Its length or greatest height is 48 inches.

Its greatest breadth near the ears, 29 inches, five lines.

Its thickness from the forehead to the nape of the neck 22 inches five lines.

*aa*, the *os frontis*

*bb* the *futura sagittalis*, hardly discernable.

*cc* The bony *septum nasi*, or external process of the *os ethmoides*, without its fellow.

*dd* The coronal suture appearing imperfect.

*ee* The *os sincipitis*.

*ff* The *futura squamosa* of the temples.

*gg* The *futura lambdoides* of the occiput.

*hh* The external *processus zygomaticus* of the *os temporum*.

*ii* The posterior lateral, or zygomatic process of the *os maxillare*.

*kk* The upper process of the *os malæ*, join'd with the outer process of the *os frontis*, and constituting a part of the orbit of the eye.

*ll* The outer process of the *os frontis*, forming the upper part of the orbit.

*mm* The anterior process of the *os malæ*, join'd with the *os maxillare*.

*nn* The anterior process of the *os maxillare*, forming the sockets of the foremost teeth.

*oo* The lower lateral process of the *os maxillare*, constituting the lockets of the grinders.

*p* A grinder in its socket, one on each side

*q* A surprizing cavity of the nose, stretching above the palate, through which, by means of its *proboscis*, the water upon drinking, is convey'd into the throat, in the manner peculiar to the elephant.

Fig. 2. exhibits a view of the right side of the head.

*a* The round process of the *os occipitis*, entering into the *pelvis Atlantis*.

*bb* The *os occipitis* of a monstrous size.

*cc* The lambdoidal suture.

*d* The *os petrosum* with the *meatus auditorius*.

*e* The outer zygomatic process of the *os temporis*.

*f* The *futura squamosa* of the *os temporis*.

*g* The *os sincipitis*

*h* The outer process of the *os frontis*, forming the upper part of the orbit.

*i* The bottom of the orbit.

*k* The hole of the optic and pathetic nerves, pointed to a prick'd line.

*l* The upper process of the *os malæ*, join'd with the outer process of the *os frontis*, constituting part of the orbit.

*m* The anterior process of the same *os malæ*, join'd with the *os maxillare*.

*n* The posterior lateral or zygomatic process of the same *os malæ*.

*o* Another zygomatic process of the same *os malæ*, peculiar to this skeleton.

*p* A hole near the foregoing process. Qu. If to let a nerve pass to the teeth?

*qq* The anterior process of the *os maxillare*, constituting the sockets of the foreteeth.

*rr* The inferior lateral process of the *os maxillare* supporting the socket of an upper grinder.

*ss* A grinder fast in its socket, one on each side; which no small argument that this skeleton belongs to an elephant and not to the chimerical *Behemoth* of the *Rabbins*, or the *Beheimeth*, supposed different from the elephant; of which *Buxtorff*, the learned *Bochart*, and others, have treated.

Fig. 3. Exhibits the back view of the same head.

*a* The great hole of the *os occipitis*, for the passage of the *medulla oblongata* to the spine.

*bb* T

*b b* The processus globosus of the *os occipitis*, cover'd with cartilage, entering into the *pelvis Atlantis*.

*c* The *os sphenoides cuneiforme*, or *basilare*.

*d* A peculiar and very remarkable sinus of the *os occipitis*, deeper than an *Ostrich's egg*, serving in all appearance for the insertion of the muscles of the neck.

*e e* The outer surface of the *os occipitis* entire.

*ff* The surface of the same *os occipitis* broken through, exhibiting deep winding cells running on every side.

*g* The *os petrosum* with the *meatus auditorius*

*h* Quære if this be the place behind the ears, wherein elephants are wont to be kill'd, and where this one was damag'd by the knife?

*i* The outer zygomatic process of the *os temporis*.

*k* The outer process of the *os frontis*, constituting the upper part of the orbit of the eye.

*l* The bottom of the orbit, and the hole that gives passage to the optic and pathetick nerves, mark'd by a small line.

*m* The upper process of the *os malæ*, join'd with the process of the *os frontis*, and making up a part of the orbit.

*n* The posterior lateral or zygomatic process of the *os malæ*

*o* Another zygomatic process of the same *os malæ*, peculiar to this skeleton.

*p*. The lower lateral process of the *os maxillare*, supporting the socket of an upper grinder.

*q* The transverse process of the *maxillary* bone, or the greater *os palati*, which is very short in the skeleton of an elephant, whose tongue is scarce longer than a man's hand; which leave no room to doubt but this must be the skeleton of an elephant.

*rr* The upper grinders, one on each side, to which their opposites answer in the lower jaw: And as the elephants grinders are commonly four in number, this circumstance is another proof of Sir Hans Sloane's and the Doctor's opinion.

*s*. The passage from the nostrils into the proboscis and ending in the fauces, with the *os vomer* very visible; though ill drawn through the neglect of the painter.

*tt* The anterior process of the *os maxillare*, constituting the sockets of the foreteeth, which are represented in fig. 6.

Fig. 4. represents a grinder, which seems to be the left one of the lower jaw, seen on the outside: It weigh'd 8 lb. nine ounces

ounces, and two drachms apothecary weight, or 10 pounds  
Russian.

Its greatest length is 12 inches.

Its perpendicular height five inches.

Its thickness or breadth three inches.

It is made up of above 20 transverse *lamellæ*, a finger thick perpendicularly erect, lying close to one another, and is root compos'd of two apophyses.

*a a* The plane surface of the exerted part of the grinder scarce making half the length of the tooth, contrary to what is observ'd in the grinders of the upper jaw.

*b b* The ends of the transverse *lamellæ*, terminating the surface of the exerted part, and in this grinder as hard as stone.

*c c* The anterior *lamellæ* not extending to the exerted part, and probably, lying hid either in the socket of the *os maxillare*, or under the gums.

*d* The anterior apophysis or root of the tooth, not quite entire.

*e* The posterior apophysis or root, broken as the foregoing.

*f* A deep sinus between the two apophyses.

Fig. 5. represents the tusk (by some improperly called the horn) of the right side, having a twofold direction being bent outwards and backwards, which is peculiar to the male elephant; it being straiter in the female: It is the *ebur fossile* of the shops; and weigh'd 137 lb. one ounce two drachms and two scruples apothecary weight, or 10 pounds Russian.

Its length, or the exterior circumference of its back part was 136 inches, five lines.

The circumference of the root, where it got clear of the socket, was the greatest, being 18 inches, five lines.

The subtended arch from one extremity to the other 11 inches.

The same subtended arch *a c*, but bigger, being 91 inch.

*a* The root hollow within, the cavity extending beyond the place mark'd *b*.

*b* The root rising above its socket, where thickest.

*c* The place where the subtended arch was greatest, being 61 inches.

*d* The point of the tusk somewhat bent outwards and backwards; tho' this curvature could not be express'd by pain-

inter in a visible manner in the lesser subtended arch of 55 inches.

The tusk answering to the foregoing on the left side, was entirely like that on the right, except the contrary direction of its curvature, and its less weight, on account of having lost its point : For, it weigh'd but 128 lb, eight ounces, two drachms apothecary weight, or 150 pound *Russian*.

Fig. 6. represents the right thigh bone, exhibited to view on its inner side, which turns towards the body : It weigh'd 1 lb. six ounces, five drachms, and two scruples apothecary weight, or 25 lb. *Russian*.

Its perpendicular length 38 inches five lines.

The greatest breadth of its upper head, or *apophysis*, 15 inches.

Its circumference at the middle of the bone about 13 inches.

*a* The head cover'd with a cartilage, placed on its neck, and inserted in the socket of the *os ischium*, and fastened by means of two ligaments.

*b* The *cervix* or neck of the bone

*c* The upper external or greater *trochanter*.

*d* The lower internal or lesser *trochanter*.

*e* The place in the middle of the bone, where the circumference measur'd 13 inches.

*f* The *Sinus* facilitating the free motion of the *patella*.

*g* The other process, or inward head, covered with a cartilage, together with its fellow.

*b* Two vertical *sinus's* in the *tibia*, answering to the external *trochanter*.

The bones of this skeleton, with the ribs, *vertebræ*, &c. hereto belonging, were found in the sandy side of a steep hill, on the eastern bank of the river *Indigirska*, which falls into the northern ocean, not far from the mouth of the river *Wolockozwoi rugzei*.

The river *Indigirska* to the east of the river *Zena*, where it runs in its own channel, has not been laid down by M. *Witzen* in his map of the north east part of *Asia* : But its course is described by *Ysbrand Ides* in the map of his travels: And some of these bones are found now and then not only in these parts, but likewise in the sand hills on the rivers *Chatanga*, *Thomass*, *Tobol*, *Irtisch*, &c. all at a good distance from the sea, tho' neither elephants nor chimerical behemoth's have ever been seen in those countries : Wherefore the best judges follow

follow the opinion of Dr. Woodward, the Scheuchzers and others, in taking them for the bones of antideluvian animals.

On the bank of the same river, which bank is call'd Sztojahr, Michael Wolochowicz saw a piece of skin putrified appearing out of the side of a sand-hill, pretty large, very thick, and cover'd with long hair, pretty thick set, and of brown colour, somewhat like goats hair; which skin he could not take for that of a goat, but of the behemoth, insomuch as he could not appropriate it to any animal he knew.

*A large glandular tumour in the pelvis; and the pernicious effects of crude mercury, given internally; by Dr. Cantwell.*

Phil. Trans. N° 446. p. 139.

ONE P——r M——n having been very ill for two or three years before had lost the use of his left leg and thigh, was subject to frequent head aches and pains in his bones, but especially his legs: For which as he had been given to women, his physicians salivated him twice, sent him to several hot waters, and gave him all the remedies they could think of, but to no purpose. For, his illness increasing he had from time to time great difficulty of making water and going to stool. In this condition he came from Spain Marseilles, and from thence was sent to the waters of Barleruc, of which he drank a great quantity: But as they did not pass, his physician there order'd him strong purges with clysters of a decoction of tobacco, and the like. He then began to vomit his excrements; upon which the physician to a regiment in Spain, order'd him half a pound of crude mercury by the mouth, which made him suffer most exquisite pains; and his belly swell'd, and became stiff as a drum. Upon this Dr. Montagne was sent for, who soon discover'd the error of the preceding practice, by feeling a solid body near the rectum, which obstructing the passage hinder'd the clyster-pipe from entering far enough into the gut. After his departure, the patient was again ordered clysters, which were injected with a crooked pipe, and several purges; till at the end of eight days he died, having his belly bigger, stiffer and harder than ever.

Upon opening the abdomen, with a *Bistouri*, (it was fill'd with a whitish liquor of some consistence: The *epiploon* was entirely dissolv'd, and floated in this liquor like so much pus. Upon pouring out this water, the Doctor examined the intestines: The *colon* was burst

under the stomach; and in three other places at its lower part; and so was the *cæcum*: The *ileum* was all inflamed, and in one part gangrened. The lips of the ruptures were plaister'd with excrement, all beset with a vast number of globules of quicksilver; and when the intestines were disengaged and taken out, the quicksilver fell from them in large drops. The other *visa* were in their natural state, except the liver, which was gangrened.

The Dr. being very solicitous about the tumour, look'd into the *pelvis*, where he found an excrescence of a prodigious size, which fill'd all its left side: He took the knife and clear'd all round the tumour: whereby he found the urinary bladder close sett up between the anterior part of the tumour and the *os sacrum*, which occasion'd the strangury the patient had been tormented with. The *rectum*, which lay upon the middle of the *os sacrum*, was also vastly press'd on by the tumour, which seem'd to take its rise from the holes that are in the left side of that bone. The surgeon, (while the Dr. laid down the knife, in order to separate the *os pubis* with a hatchet) cut out the tumour: Then the Dr. examin'd the *os sacrum*, which was so very soft that his fingers enter'd it every where on the left side. The tumour was of an ovoid figure, cover'd over with several membranes; it weigh'd 2 pound and  $\frac{1}{2}$ ; its longest axis was six inches and somewhat more than three quarters, French measure; its shortest 4 inches three quarters. At first sight he took it for a *parenchyma*; but upon dissection, he found it analogous to the liver in substance, colour and consistence. Its artery, vein and nerve were very large, and distributed thorough the whole substance: Wherefore the Dr. takes it to have really been one of the conglobate glands of the *pelvis*, whose vessels yielding to the blood impell'd thither, with greater force and in a larger quantity than usual, on account of the violent exercises of dancing, jumping, &c. which the patient had very much practis'd, caus'd its increase to that enormous size. Upon opening it, the Dr. observ'd three very apparent divisions in it: And where the *psoas* lay over it, and one of the *pyramidales* beat upon it, it was ossified.

The Dr. preserv'd it in brandy, and found that the small vessels that were most fill'd with blood press'd it out into the interstices of the neighbouring ones.

The weight the patient constantly complain'd of at his left hip; the difficulty he had in going to stool, and that of thrusting a syringe far enough into the *rectum* to give him a clyster

with any success; the tumour itself, which was easily felt upon putting the finger into the *anus*; together with the palsy of the left leg and thigh, might, the Dr. thinks, have given other indications to the physicians, than those they took. And the Dr. thinks that the frictions and other heating medicines the patient was plied with, contributed to augment his illness.

In fine, the crude mercury, the patient swallow'd, the quantity of *Balleruc* water he drank before it, with the strong cathartics taken by the mouth and *anus*, seem to have cut him short of some months, which he might have liv'd, had he used no other remedies than a slender relaxing diet.

A Narhual or Unicorn Fish, taken in the River Ost, in the Dutchy of Bremen; by Dr. Steigertahl. Phil. Trans. N° 447. p. 147.

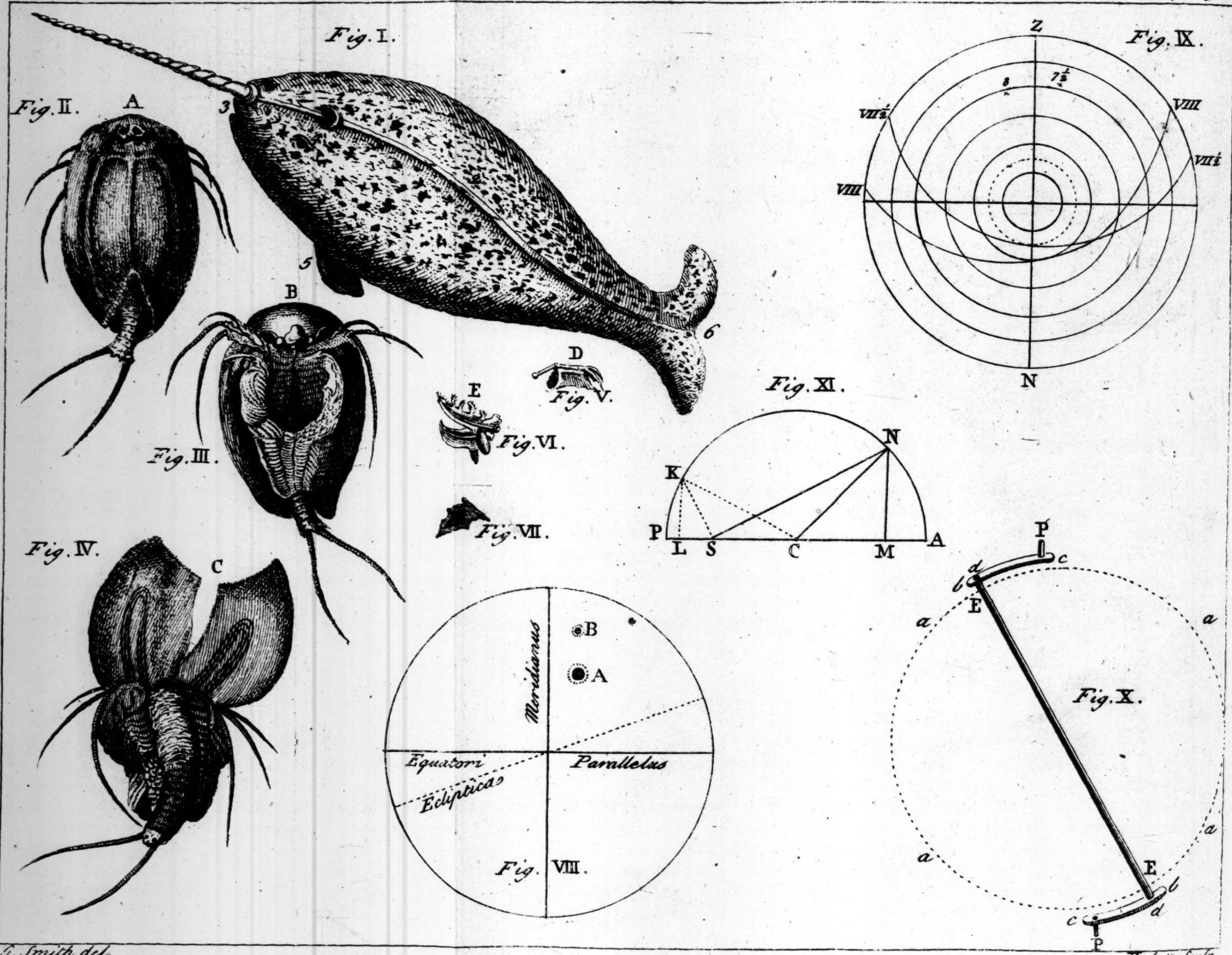
Towards the latter end of January, 1736, N. S. there was taken a sort of whale, call'd the *narhual* or sea-corn, in the river *Ost*, where it falls into the *Elbe*, near the village *Bellum* in the Dutchy of *Bremen*, four miles from the town. There was a great quantity of fat taken out of it, to make *thrann* or whale-oil; but it was observ'd that this train-oil had an almost intolerable stench, by reason that this *narhual* feeds on carcasses: For, *nar* signifies a carcass or dead body, according to *Valentini* in his *Museum Musæorum* B. III. ch. 30.

There was such care taken of the skin, before the dissection, that it was cur'd with salt and alum; and stuffed in such manner as to exhibit the just figure of the fish; having left with the bones of the scull, and some *vertebræ* near the tail.

The skin was spotted with dark brown spots upon a white ground: The *epidermis* was transparent; and under it was another skin very thin and spotted; but the true skin was brown and near an inch in thickness. On the top of the head was found a semilunar hole, as in the porpoise, according to the description given by *John Daniel Major*, and publish'd in *Miscellan. Academ. Nat. Curios. Dec. 1. An. 3. p. 22 &c.* This hole opens into the two canals running thorough the brain to the palate, and are called by *Major*, *ductus hydragogus*. There was no opening or outlet for the *faeces* observ'd in the skin; and Dr. *Steigertahl* was told, that this *narhual* voided them thorough this hole on the top of the head.

As to the horn, the Dr. agrees in opinion with *Wormius* and others, who take it for a tooth: But he cannot believe that its sole use is to break the ice; it rather serving the fish for seeking its food.

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A Captain of a *Greenland* vessel assur'd the Dr. that being upon the coast a whale-fishing, and having taken one; as he was turning the whale to get at the fat, he found on the opposite side to him, a *narhual*, that had stuck his tooth into the whale's belly, up to its mouth, and suck'd the blood and humours.

The Dr. only saw the stuffed skin, as it was carrying to *Leipsic* fair: And as he finds that the figure engrav'd and printed at *Hamburg* has a good resemblance to what he saw, he has annex'd a print of it, as represented Fig. 1. Plate XI.

1. Shews a semilunar hole, thro' which the fish upon dying, cast out water and blood.

2. A small rising on the middle of the back, and fleshy as the fins.

3. The mouth very small, without teeth in the upper jaw, except this *dens prominens*, or tusk, which by some has been taken for a horn: There was no lower jaw found.

4. The eye very small.

5. The fin on the right side, which, as well as the opposite one, is fleshy.

6. The tail fleshy like the fins; which taken, according to its width, is not vertical but horizontal.

7. The prominent tooth or tusk, commonly taken for a horn. The length of this *narhual* from N° 3 to 6 was 17 feet 9 inches.

The tooth 6 feet 3 inches.

The greatest thickness, measur'd round, was 14 feet.

The skin was smooth without scales, like that of an eel, and was white markt with blackish spots.

#### *A Description of the same Narhual; by Dr. Henry Hampe.*

*Phil. Trans. N° 447. p. 149.*

IN a creek, called the *Belubmer wadt*, belonging to the *Bailiwick of Newhaus* in the Dutchy of *Bremen*, was caught alive an unknown fish of a large size, 18 or 20 feet in length, and 4 in diameter. On the fore-part of the head, just above the mouth (which is very small) it has a horn 6 feet long, white like ivory, and curiously twisted. The body is white, sprinkled with black spots, and smooth like an eel. The head in proportion to the body, is very small, about 16 inches in length, and the same in diameter. The eyes are also small, about the bigness of a sixpence. On the upper part of the head is a hole about 3 inches in diameter, out of which he probably

spouts out water like the whales. On each side of the neck are placed two black fins, one above the other, and at a small distance from each other. They are half an inch in thickness of a hand's breadth and two feet in length, round on the fore-part, all fleshy, and of a liver-colour.

*A Water Insect, not hitherto described; by M. Klein. Phil. Trans. N° 447. p. 150. Translated from the Latin.*

**A** Friend of M. Klein's presented him with a water insect found at Uderwanga in East Prussia among fresh water crabs, and utterly unknown to the crab fishers.

From the great number of its feet, and surprising facility of moving them, it may with equal, if not better reason be call'd *scolopendra aquarica scutata*, than *Aldrovandus* p. 721. *de cetis* calls a certain fish of the whale kind, *scolopendra cetacea*.

A (Fig. 2. Plate XI.) represents the insect on its upper part, cover'd with a shield; which nearly resembles tortoise-shells, only that along the middle of the back it is a little gibbous, and towards the extremity of the body has a triangular *hiatus*, slightly indented; it is entire, and almost of the same substance (yet of a more dilute colour) with the sheaths of the wings of the *scarabæi Gædarti*, produced from weevils or what is called *scarabæus rosarum*. The eyes pass out thro' the shield, and are a little prominent.

B (Fig. 3.) represents the insect delineated on the under part; where at the same time appears a vast number of legs: Each of these has a certain bag as at D (Fig. 5.) terminating in three feet, or rather toes: The two anterior ones have this in peculiar that their three feet or toes are longer than the others, tho' they differ from one another in length. All the toes of the greater and lesser feet consist of similar articulations; and such as the hairs of the forked tail of this *scolopendra*, or the *antennæ* of other insects have.

M. Klein thinks he shall not be much mistaken if he suppose, this insect makes use of the longer toes of both the anterior feet before, and of the hairs of its forked tail behind for *antennæ*, by means of which it timely discovers either its pursuing enemies, or such as it meets with in lurking places; unless one would chuse to take the two short horns, that appear in the Fig. at that place, where we are reasonably to look for the head, for *antennæ*.

C (Fig. 4.) represents the body bared of its shield, view'd on the back; on account of which the shield is carefully di-

vided

vided lengthwise, which as to the part explain'd is not continu'd with the back. In the thin cuticle of the lower part of the shield, and that on both sides may be observ'd (as in the Fig.) punctures like needle work.

M. Klein could not certainly determine, whether it sucks in the water thro' these apertures into the cavity between the gibbous shield and the cuticle, and again emits it; or whether it fills the cuticle with air, or empties it according as it has a mind either to go down to the bottom or rise up to the top of the water. The infections are about 30, but the legs cannot easily be numbered. In the extreme part of the body which separates the shield, the rings of the infections are beset with small spines, and that in the same order, as they appear delineated Fig. 2 and 4.

D (Fig. 5.) represents one of the legs next the anterior ones, together with the little bag.

B (Fig. 3.) represents another leg in a different view.

As long as this insect liv'd, it continually and with singular facility mov'd its feet, drawing at the same time into its sheath and putting out again, the extreme part of its body.

M. Klein could find no trace of this insect amongst authors.

*The same Sort of Insect found in Kent; by Mr. Littleton Brown; with a Remark; by Dr. Mortimer. Phil. Trans. N° 447. p. 153.*

Mr. Brown presented to the Royal Society to be kept in their Musæum, a creature, whose name he could not learn from any books or persons he had hitherto met with: He brought it from a pond upon Bexby Common in Kent, where great numbers had been observ'd for five weeks before. The pond was quite dry the 24th of June, 1736; but upon its being fill'd with a great thunder-shower on the 25th, within two days the pond was observ'd to swarm with them: And what Mr. Brown thought observable was, that there is no duct or channel that could convey them from any adjacent place.

E (Fig. 6. Plate XI.) represents this insect; its legs are very extraordinary. Dr. Mortimer counted 42 on a side in one of those found in Kent; the 20 next the head are nearly of a size, but then they grow gradually smaller and smaller towards the tail. He took out one of the larger ones of the left side of the chest; the foot consists of five flat membranous claws, with a stiff rib along their middle, and beset with hairs on the edges, like those of crabs. On the lower side of the bag hangs an oval

oval bag, and beyond that grows a large thin membran which may be extended by a bony rib that runs cross it this membrane and the whole foot is convex on the side next the head, and concave on that next the tail ; the thigh, or first joint of the leg, is webb'd on each side : So that the whole structure of the legs seems to shew that they are rather design'd for swimming than walking.

The leg represented at E (Fig. 6.) drawn when the insect lay on its back as at B. (Fig. 3.) Several parts of this insect tho' no bigger than the figures, have some resemblance to those of the *Molucca* crab.

*An Abstract of Meteorological Diaries for the Years 1729 and 1730 ; by Mr. Hadley, Phil. Trans. N° 447. p. 154.*

**B**EFORE Mr. Hadley proceeds to the tables, he gives some account of each of the diaries of the years 1729 and 1730, and their contents.

The diary kept by Mr. Hauksbee, by order of the Royal Society, at their house in *Crane Court*, consists of observation of the barometrical heights twice a day, i. e. morning and evening, in inches, decimals, and centefimals ; as also of the thermometer, in its proper graduations, and the weather, with the hour of each observation : The winds are omitted. The depth of the rain is set down several times for the most part in each month, the sum of which is to be divided by 10 ; the funnel which catches the rain being much bigger in surface than that of the vessel which receives the rain from it.

That from *Southwick near Oundle in Northamptonshire* by Mr. Lynn, contains the height of the barometer once a day, and the winds, the steadiness and strength of which is likewise mark'd in proper characters : Observation made of the upper and under currents of the air, when so happened. The thermometer is mark'd twice a day the weather often, both by day and night ; the rain from time to time ; and the quantity of each particular shower often set down by itself, with some other miscellaneous observations, as halo's, thunder-storms, and sudden changes of wind, &c. He takes notice of his thermometer being placed in an out-house exposed to the air, but screen'd from the sun which is a proper precaution in using that instrument. The remarkable rises and falls of the mercury are also mark'd with proper characters, which method would likewise be

ful in the other columns, for comparison of diaries, if some certain rule were agreed on.

That from *Kent*, 16 miles south east from *London*, gives an account of the barometer once a day; sometimes twice or thrice, with the hour of each observation, and the winds, weather, and rain; the proportion of which for every day is given at the end of each month. There is also a separate column for the height of the clouds, which the observer divides into three orders; and where there are two orders at a time, they are both noted; as also when any of them move with different velocities or directions, which he supposes to be commonly a sign of change of the wind: But he does not inform us how he determin'd their heights or velocities. The reigning wind, and general strength of it, is noted at the end of each month; likewise the eclipses, and the times of the new moons, which he observes make it appear, that the notion of the change of weather depending on the age of the motion is without any ground; with other miscellaneous observations, as the *aurora borealis*, fruitfulness or sterility of the season. He had no thermometer.

That from *Hudickswall* in *Sweden* by M. *Olave Broman* shews the height of the barometer sometimes once, sometime twice or thrice a day O S. in *English* measure, with the winds, and their strength, and the weather. There is also annex'd to the diary of 1729 an account of the height of the sea water for every day, which Mr. *Hadley* observes to vary in the whole about two inches, and is sometimes interrupted by rain-floods. This, probably, relates to the tides in the gulph of *Bothnia*. Mr. *Hadley* has not inserted these in the tables, as not being of general use. There is no thermometer, nor the quantity of rain set down.

That from *Risinge* in *Ostrogothia*, in *Sweden*, by *Sueno Laurelius*, pastor and provost gives the height of the barometer for the most part three times, sometimes five times a day, together with the hour of the observations O. S. in *English* measure. He refers to the diary of 1727 for the descriptions of his barometer and thermometer: The winds together with the degree of their strength, the weather and the depth of rain, are likewise set down.

In that from *Upsal* in *Sweden*, by M. *Andrew Celsius*, professor of astronomy, observations are made three times a day of the barometer and thermometer; both which instruments were made by Mr. *Hauksbee*; as also the winds, with their

their strength, and the weather, and depth of rain from time to time are set down.

That from *Svenaker* in *Sweden* near *Trolhetta*, by *N. Torstanus Wassenius* contains the height of the barometer twice a day, sometimes three times O. S. in *Swedish* feet inches and decimals, which being supposed to be to *English*, as 974.375 to 1000, the mean heights are reduced in the following tables to that measure. The winds also with their strength, and the weather, are noted. There is no thermometer. Notice is taken of thunder storms, and other meteors.

*N. B.* In the account of the *Swedish* diaries for 1728, *Svenaker* is said to be 109 *London* feet above the surface of the sea. The mean height of the barometer there in these two years, is but 29.47 inches, which would give the height of the place near 450 feet, according to the reckoning hereafter mentioned: Therefore Mr. *Hadley* thinks there must be some mistake; perhaps some air might have gone into the top of the tube, or the scale be placed too high.

That from *Lunden* in *Sweden*, by *Conrad Quensel* professor of mathematics in the *Caroline* academy, contains observations of the barometer twice a day, O. S. in *English* inches and decimals and fourth parts of them; the winds with their strength, and the weather. The thermometer is *Florentine*; therefore the observations are not inserted in the table. The monthly mean there given, is taken simply between the two extremes. Mr. *Hadley* has given it in the tables taken the other way, as all the rest are.

That from *Bygdea* in *Sweden*, by *M. John Telius*, pastor there, contains observations of the barometer twice a day morning and evening O. S. in *English* inches and decimals, the winds, with their strength, and the weather. The two last months are wanting. There is no thermometer.

That from *Betna* in *Sudermanland*, by *M. And. Geringius*, pastor and provost, contains observations of the barometer thrice a day, except in the first part of *January*, O. S. in *English* inches and decimals, the winds with their strength, and the weather, with other meteorological observations; also on the seasons, as to fruitfulness and sterility, &c. The *aurora borealis* is frequently mentioned. The thermometer is peculiarly graduated, and so could not be inserted. There is a column for rain, with marks, which Mr. *Hadley* understood not.

From *Wittemberg* in *Saxony*, there are two diaries communicated; the one from M. *Mat. Hafius*, professor of mathematics; the other from M. *Weidler*: That by M. *Hafius* has the height of the barometer several times a day, sometimes four or five times O. S. in *English* inches and decimals, and the parts of these in vulgar fractions, but reduced to decimals in the tables. He employ'd two barometers and thermometers: Those marked I. are Mr. *Hauksbee's*; those markt II. *Florentine*. The coldest day he ever observ'd was Feb. the 5th 1726. It also contains the winds, with their strength, and the weather. M. *Weidler* gives the height of the barometer three times a day, N. S. in *Paris* inches and lines, and the parts of these in vulgar fractions; likewise the winds, and their strength, and the weather, and the quantity of rain in cubes and lines: but at the end of each quarter the depth is given in *Paris* inches and lines. The thermometer is Mr. *Hauksbee's*. There are some astronomical observations of eclipses, &c. He takes notice, that an occultation of *Venus* by the moon, observ'd with an 18 foot telescope, may serve to prove the moon to have an atmosphere: For, being then in its quadrature with the sun, it appeared to lose its cusps, and become oval, when it came near the moon. Mr. *Hadley* for two years made use of M. *Hafius's* barometrical and thermometrical observations, being O. S. and *English* measure, tho' the three last months of 1730 are wanting. The depth of rain is taken from M. *Weidler*, and reduced from *Paris* to *English* measure, supposed to be as 1068 to 1000; but is not reduced to the old style. M. *Weidler* refers to his meteorological observations sent the Royal Society. The year 1730 he observes to have been more wet and cold than had been known, and the sky very misty.

That from *Padua* by S. *Poleni* shews the height of the barometer once a day O. S. in *English* inches and decimals, the winds, and sometimes their strength, and likewise the weather.

A particular account of his thermometer, as also the observations on his diaries, containing in all six years, have been published in *Phil. Transf.* N° 421. The depth of rain is given both for the old and new style.

That from *Bengal*, by Mr. *Bellamy*, preacher to the factory, contains the height of the thermometer twice a day, morning and evening, as also the winds with their strength, and the weather for the year 1730. The medium of the

thermometer is taken both from the evening and morning heights; the difference there being very considerable in proportion between morning and evening.

That from *Boston* in *New-England*, by Mr. *Dudley*, shew the weather three times a day, and the wind once or twice. There is no barometer or thermometer.

In 1730 those from *Crane-Court, Southwick, Kent*, *Hudicksall, Ostrogothia, Upsal, Svenaker, Lunden, Bettina, Wittemberg, Padua, and Boston*, are continued in the same manner. The *Abo* observations for the year 1730, by M. *Sporing*, shew the height of the barometer twice a day in *Swedish inches and decimals*; but the mean heights are reduced to *English measure* in the tables: They likewise shew the winds and weather, and in the last column the *aurora boreales*, which are frequent in most months of the year.

That from *Naples*, by S. *Cyrillus*, shews the height of the thermometer (which is one of Mr. *Hauksbee's*) once a day, as also the winds with their strength, the weather and the depth of rain in *Neapolitan measures*, 23 of which make a *London inch*, to which they are reduced in the tables. The barometrical heights he has not set down; because he found them not to agree with those of former years, which made him suspect his instrument to be out of order: But as it appears he had remov'd his habitation, it might be owing to its being situated higher or lower than the former. An eruption of *Vesuvius* happening, an account is given thereof and of damage done by lightning, and likewise of the seasons as to fruitfulness and healthiness, vide *Phil. Trans.* N° 424.

*Note*, in some of the diaries, the numbers shewing the decimal parts of the inches, are set down in single figures without any rule or cypher to distinguish them from the centesimal, and in others the centesimal in like manner: But it is easy to form a judgment of the authors method by considering them.

Having given an account of the method and contents of the several diaries, Mr. *Hadley* proceeds to the tables extracted from them.

The barometrical table consists of two parts; the upper shews the mean height of the barometer, taken in the method formerly proposed by Dr. *Jurin*, for every month throughout the year, for each place, and in each column the highest month is mark'd with an *b*, the lowest with an *l*, to make them more observable to the eye. At the bottom the mean of the whole year is set down for each place. At

the foot of this table is another, shewing the greatest ascent and descent of the mercury in that year, with the particular day of each, the difference of which is the range ; a circumstance Dr. *Derham*, and other observers, have usually taken notice of.

Next follows the table of the monthly thermometrical heights, extracted in Dr. *Jurin's* method also in every place where the Society's instruments were used ; and at the bottom the mean of the whole year ; and likewise the hottest and coldest day in each place.

In the last place are the tables of the depth of rain, where it is contain'd in the diaries.

Mr. *Hadley* chose to put each of these matters in separate tables, that the eye might be able to take a view of the whole, and compare the state of each place with the others, as to every particular, with less confusion ; as also because several of the diaries have nothing upon one or more of these heads.

*Note.* The mean heights both of the barometer and thermometer are extracted only from the morning observations, some of the diaries containing no more ; except in the mean heights of the thermometer at *Bengal*, which are taken both from the morning and evening observations.

A Table of the monthly mean Barometrical Heights, and also of the greatest Ascents and Descents of the Mercury observ'd in several Places, in the Year 1729, Inches and Decimals.

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MEMOIRS of the

A.	Crane-Court, London.	Southwick in Norrbamptorff.	In Kent.		Hudiksvall in Sweden		Östrogothia in Uppland in Swe- den.	
			Lat. 51°	Lat. 62°	Lat. 56°	Lat. 59° 48'		
1729	Lat. 51° 31'	Lat. 52° 54'	29 70	29 41 h	29 49	29 30 1	29	43 1
January	30 08	66	37	30 02	576		9 2	
February	02	54	37	29 63	27		55	
March	29 93	69	26	30 04 h	62 h		30 16 h	
April	93	57	29	29 82	38		29 71	
May	95	69	36	86	35		74	
June	30 07	64	28	69	20 1		60	
July	29 97	72 h	38	78	35		65	
August	30 9 h	42	99	90	42		81	
September	29 69	52	09	55	32		54	
October	83	32 1	28 94 1	451	25		54	
November	61 1	52	29 25	75	52		79	
December	83							
Mean of the whole Year.	29 91	29 575	29 ,257	29 ,748	29 371		29 73	

Mer. High.	30 55	Feb. 26	11 Feb.	23	30 70 Feb.	28	30 50 Mar.	7	30 30 Dec. 20
Lower	28 31	Jan. 18	23 Jan.	18	28 18 Oct.	12	28 25 Nov.	27	28 20 Nov. 10
Differ.	2 10			2 17					

C

The foregoing Barometrical Table continued.

B.	1729	Svenneker in Sweden.	Lunden in Sweden	Bygda in Sweden	Betna in Sveden.	Wittenberg in Saxony, by Mr. Hafnus.	Padua in Italy
		Lat. 50° 10'	Lat. 55. 42'	Lat. 63. 40'	Lat. 52.	Lat. 45 15'	
January	29	44	29 42	29 18	29 77	29 83 h	29 74
February	62	54		76	30 18 h	78	725
March	28	38		41	29 84	65	66
April	65 h	57		82 h	30 17	64	85
May	44	48		61	29 89	35	67
June	56	59 h		63	88	77	74
July	43	44		50	721	341	631
August	52	57		57	84	79	79
September	51	44		76	92	65	65
October	37	46		331	76	67	75
November	181	331			75	51	64
December	53	52			99	74	89 h
Mean of the whole Year	29 46	29 47		29 557	29 892	29 643	29 727
D.							
Mer. High Lowell	30 41 Feb. 28	30 40 Feb. 27	30 36 Feb. 23	30 70 Feb. 18	30 50 Jan. 7	30 30 Dec. 20.	
Lowell Diff.	28 31 Jan. 18	28 23 Jan. 18	28 18 Oct. 12.	28 75 Oct. 12.	28 95 Nov. 27.	28 90 Nov. 10.	
	2 10	2 17	2 18	2 18	1 95	1 55	1 40

A Table of the monthly mean Thermometrical Heights in several Places in the Year 1729.

1729.	Crane-court.	Southwick.	UpSal.	Wittenberg.
January	67 ,3	70	80	70 ,9
February	69 ,2	74	82 ,7	67 ,5
March	60 8	69	70 ,6	56 ,3
April	55 ,2	61	58 ,9	51 ,6
May	42 ,6	53	48 ,5	36 ,0
June	34 ,9	43	37 ,3	30 ,2
July	33 ,1	42	35 ,1	29 ,0
August	33 ,8	43	40 ,4	29 ,65
September	38 ,6	46	47 ,1	37 ,6
October	51 ,1	57	60 ,8	50 ,2
November	56 ,8	60	66 ,3	59 ,6
December	58 ,8	63	71 ,4	70 ,6
Mean of the Year.	50 ,1	56 ,7	57 ,6	49 ,09
Thermos.	12 ,5 Jan.	13 June.	10. 22. 5. June 9.	14. 75. May 23.
Highest	80 ,5 Jan.	88 Jan.	97 Jan. 5.	95 o. Jan. 1.
Lowest				

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A Table of the Depth of Rain which fell in several Places in the Year 1729. in Inches and Decimals.

1729.	Crane-Court.	Southwick.	Kent.	Offregtibia.	Uphol.	Wittenberg S.yle Novo.	Padua.
January	,739	,16	,499	,830	1 ,153		1 ,085
February	,785	,48	1 ,069	1 ,050	1 ,027		1 ,245
March	1 ,125	1 ,31	1 ,286	,600	,826	,48	,902
April	1 ,600	1 ,10	2 ,197	,005	,000	,905	2 ,768
May	1 ,515	1 ,55	2 ,216	3 ,865	,875	,94	2 ,634
June	1 ,200	0 ,83	,730	2 ,930	2 ,450	,815	3 ,134
July	1 ,04	2 ,26	2 ,153	1 ,615	2 ,578	1 ,31	4 ,526
August	3 ,04	2 ,44	2 ,533	1 ,405	,747	1 ,365	,578
September	3 ,505	5 ,32	2 ,343	2 ,940	2 ,687	,78	3 ,267
October	1 ,420	2 ,20	2 ,218	1 ,050	,139	1 ,43	6 ,294
November	2 ,425	4 ,18	4 ,334	2 ,150	,855	1 ,305	4 ,186
December	1 ,950	1 ,68	1 ,947	3 ,040	1 ,140	1 ,295	2 ,804
Total.	20 ,344	23 ,51	23 ,525	21 ,480	14 ,477	11 ,625	35 ,423

A Table of the monthly mean Barometrical Heights, and also of the greatest Ascents and Descents of the Mercury observed in several Places, in the Year 1730, in Inches and Decimals.

1729.	Crane-Court, London.		Southwark in Northamptonsh.		In Kent.		Huddicavall in Sweden.		Öfregotbia in Upsal in Swe- den.		A.		
	Lat.	51° 31'	Lat.	52° 54'	Lat.	51° h	Lat.	62°	Lat.	56°	Lat.	59° 48'	
January	30	,04	29	,79	29	51 h	29	61	29	50	29	,66	
February	29	,61		39		06		50 l		29		60	
March		,52 l		34 l		03 l		77		45		79	
April		,90		66		37		77		52		77	
May		,76		55		15		68		58		72	
June		,83		60		24		75		35		75	
July		,84		61		31		82		31		78	
August		,94		70		39		75		38		74	
September		,90		34 l		37		75		44		75	
October		68				49				64		93 h	
November		79				55				50 l		56 l	
December		30	,09 h			83 h				84		68 h	
Mean of the whole Year		29	,825	29	,57	29	,27			29	,455	29	,745
Mer. High.	30,35	Dec. 1.	13.	30,30	Jan.	10.	30,01	Jan. 10.	30,52	Dec.	1.	30,71	Dec. 1.
Lowest.	28,70	Mar.	8.	28,53	Mar.	8.	28,28	Mar.	8.	28,70	Dec.	10.	28,90 Dec. 10.

The foregoing Barometrical Table continued.

The foregoing Barometrical Table continued.

B.	1730.	Svenaker in Sweden.	Lunden in Sweden.	Bernta in Sweden.	Abo in Finland.	Wittemburg in Saxony, by Mr. Hafus.	Padua in Italy.
		Lat. 58° 10'	Lat. 55° 42'	Lat. 58° 49'	Lat. 60° 40'	Lat. 52	Lat. 45° 15'
January	29	39 1	29 57	29 96	29 68	29 823 h	29 88
February	46		23 1	81	435	428 1	55
March	42		34	97	61	48	46 1
April		59 h	56	30 03	705	677	69
May		54	46	29 89	55	99	67
June		53	55	89	60	667	67
July		49	51	87	665	671	69
August		53	59	89	56	776	80
September		48	57	30 04	30 05 h	80	82
October		56	61	11	29 76		
November		46	30	29 74 1	355 1		72
December		43	65 h	30 12 h	68		
Mean of the whole Year.	29	,48	29 ,495	29 ,943	29 ,637	29 ,701	29 ,705
Mer. High.	30,42	Dec. 1.	30,22 Dec. 13.	30,98 Dec. 1.	31,20 Dec. 1.	30,37 Jan. 30.	30,40 Dec. 20.
Lowest	28,43	Dec. 10.	28,61 Dec. 31.	28,96 Dec. 10.	28,64 Nov. 23.	29,00 Feb. 27.	28,98 Feb. 27.
Differ.	1 99				2,02	1,56	1 42
						1 37	

A Table of the monthly mean Thermometrical Heights in several Places in the Year 1730.

1730	Crane-Court.	Southwick	Upal	Wittenberg.	Naples	Bengal
January	67 9	69	74	72	50 5	30
February	63	68	72	67	41 3	22 ,4
March	56 ,27	62	74 5	60	40	6 ,9
April	50 2	58	56 2	48	40	4 ,0
May	41 30	49	42 4	35	40	5 ,2
June	37 7	46	29 9	29	19 5	5 ,3
July	35 22	42	21 90	26	16 7	8 ,8
August	33 8	44	34 05	29	14 2	9 ,4
September	39 8	47	50 21	40	22 6	6 ,2
October	50 1	55	62 20		29	14 ,4
November	55 5	59	72 27		40 1	23 ,4
December	49 51	70	73 10		49 9	32 ,3
Mean	48 35	55	55 22		34 3	14 ,02
Highest	10. 5. July 25	16 July 24.	9 July 27.	11 July 25.	9 Aug. 17.	0 Jan.
Lowest	77. 5. Jan. 7	83 Dec. 14.	86 7 Mar. 16.	81 50 Jan. 15.	60 Jan. 10.	40 Dec..

A Table

and Decimals

	Crane-Court	Southwick	Kent	Öfregothbia	Uppsala	Wittenberg, Stylo Nove.	Naples	Padua
1730								
January	450	45	624	795	164	78	3	89
February	1 230	1 53	2 054	870	412	1	68	1 434
March	3 595	2 61	4 067	2 730	1 983	2	86	739
April	,670	84	985	605	165	1	98	4 592
May	1 755	2 5	1 805	2 260	4 120	3	23	1 39
June	3 755	3 39	2 876	1 531	755	2	31	1 00
July	2 390	1 93	2 598	2 445	1 904	2	01	2 173
August	0 20	0 85	1 31	505	525	3	07	0 4
September	2 100	1 65	2 043	3 140	1 579	2	16	0 67
October	2 460	2 94	2 424	1 670	1 103		61	2 52
November	1 570	1 93	2 065	915	831	2	97	2 91
December	1 500	81	1 322	890	1 105	2	09	3 22
Total.	21 ,495	21 ,0 22	,924 18	,360 14	,646 25	,75 24	,336 34	,300

*Mr. Hadley makes the following Remarks.*

1. He observes on the barometrical tables of these two years, viz. 1729, and 1730, that they confirm former remarks made by Dr. *Derham*, and others, of the agreement of the barometers in places at a good distance from each other: Not only the monthly mean heights agree in the three diaries of the aforesaid two years in *England*, but also the greatest ascent and descent of the mercury happen commonly on the same day; and the barometers have been found to agree in the motions to an hour, so far asunder as *Towleay* in *Lancashir* and *Greenwich* near *London*, which is near 160 miles, though that might be partly accidental. The barometer at *Cran-Court* and *Southwick*, distant about 55 miles, being compared, seem very seldom to vary from their mean difference, above  $\frac{1}{10}$  and a half each way; at *Southwick* and *Kent*, something more. From whence it might be expected that the weather should be much the same in all these places; which nevertheless seems not to agree with accounts, in some years, from different parts in this island, not very far distant: And Mr. *Hadley* himself has sometimes observed clouds to lie in one part of the horizon for a great part of a day, which have discharged a large quantity of rain, in places not far off, while the place where he has been, has all the while enjoy'd fair weather, and vice versa. Whence it appears, that the barometrical alterations of the air extend farther than their effects, as to the production of rain at those times. Comparing the Diaries of *Crane-Court* and *Upsal*, he finds the barometers vary from their mean difference an inch and a half each way; *Crane-Court* and *Padua* as much, or more, and often go a pace quite contrary at the same time; and their monthly differences are also very variable; so that their agreement at any time seen to be but accidental.

2. He observes, that the descents of the mercury below the mean heights of each place, taken in this way of Dr. *Jurie*, are generally much greater than the ascents of it above; and there are also, in every year, other extraordinary descents of the mercury, of the same kind. The reason he takes to this; namely, because the expansion of the air, whereby it becomes lighter in some one place, being the original of the alterations in the atmosphere, its effects by condensation and accumulation of the air in the places round about will be more dispersed; and therefore less sensible.

3. The variation or range is greater the farther north, as has been heretofore observed, and appears in these tables, in which he has put the Latitude of each place; and likewise it is generally greater in the winter than in the summer months. The Sum of the motion of the mercury upwards and downwards, taken from the *Berlin* wand'ring line, with a pair of compasses, in 1726, amounts to about 76 inches; which gives  $5\frac{1}{3}$  for a month, and about 0, 21 for each day: but the barometer is by much most steady in summer.

4. The mean height of the barometer hath already been applied to determine the respective heights of places, and likewise the absolute height above the surface of the sea. Dr. Scheuchzer, in his tables, published in *Phil. Trans.* N° 405, 406, supposes, from M. Mariotte, the mean height at the surface of the sea, to be 28" 1", *Paris* measure, which reduced to *English*, gives 29,993 inches. This agrees very well with a diary, communicated to the Society, containing 10 months of the year 1723, and January 1724; the author of which found by experiment, that in the place where his barometer was kept, the mercury stood  $\frac{1}{10}$  and  $\frac{1}{2}$  higher than at the surface of the sea, which was not far from the place of his habitation. The mean height of the barometer for those 10 months (leaving out the January following, which seems to be a very irregular month) Mr. Hadley finds to be 29,825, to which adding  $\frac{1}{10}\frac{1}{2}$ , it will give the mean height at the surface of the sea 29,975: So that the difference between these is only 0,018; and therefore, probably, may be near the truth, but may hereafter be more exactly determined by experiments. Then allowing about 90 feet, or rather less, for each 10th of an inch in the height of the mercury in smaller altitudes, or in greater according to the tables calculated for that purpose by Dr. Scheuchzer and Dr. Nettleton, and publish'd in *Phil. Trans.* N° 388. you will have the height of each place pretty near, provided the observations be carefully made, and continued for a sufficient time: For, the yearly mean heights in one of the places in these tables appear to differ near  $\frac{1}{10}$  of an inch in these two years: And in most of them, the last of these two years exceeds the first, two or three hundredth parts; the barometer also ought not to be removed to a lower or higher place.

As to the thermometrical tables, and those of the rain, Mr. Hadley only remarks, that the thermometers agree, especially

cially as to the hottest days in the year, more than might be expected from places at such a distance.

The winds are of so uncertain and variable a nature, that they require a more than ordinary care and diligence in making the observations, and a great length of time, and a comparison of a vast number of them, before any thing can be deduced more than is commonly known; and therefore Mr. Hadley only gives this hint, namely, that if the observers would take particular notice, in great storms, of the time when the mercury first begins to rise, whether before or after, or in the very height of the storm, it might be a direction to judge when an abatement or increase of it might be expected (if any regular order should be found therein) which might be serviceable on some occasions. But if any attempts should be made to lay down any thing certain concerning the rise and progress of the variable winds, it will appear, by considering the cause of the trade-winds, that on the same account the motion of the air will not be naturally in a great circle, for any considerable space, upon the surface of the earth anywhere, unless in the equator itself, but in some other line: And in general, all winds, as they come nearer the equator, will become more and more easterly; and as they recede from it, more and more westerly, unless some other causes intervene.

By the continuance of this method, in process of time, a discovery may be made of some regular course in these things, which may be of use.

*A Solar Eclipse, observed in Fleet-street, London, Feb. 18, 1737; by Mr. George Graham. Phil. Transl. N° 447. p. 175.*

#### Apparent Time.

Ho. Min. Sec.

- At 2 25 9 p. m. a small impression appear'd on the sun's limb. Mr. Graham judges the beginning to have been about 5 or 6 seconds sooner.
- 3 21 28 The middle of the first and larger spot cover'd.
- 29 30 The middle of the smaller spot cover'd.
- 40 4 The cusps perpendicular.
- 4 3 34 The cusps horizontal.
- 35 32 The middle of the larger spot emerged.
- 38 21 The smaller spot emerged, or a little before.

Appar-

## Apparent Time.

Ho Min. Sec.

4	52	57	The chord between the cusps	—	1057
	55	0	The chord	—	—
	56	32	The chord	—	—
	59	34	The chord	—	632

Then a cloud cover'd the upper limb, and intercepted the view of the ending, which was soon after.

Between 12 and 1 o'clock, Mr. Graham measured the sun's diameter, with a micrometer.

At the time of the greatest obscuration, the lucid part of the sun's diameter was equal to 392 such parts as his whole diameter contain'd 2188.

Mr. Graham had a transit of the sun at noon, and of *Sirius* at night; which, compared with preceding transits, he found his clock went about one second in a day too fast for mean solar time:

*The same Eclipse observed at the Royal Observatory, at Greenwich, in company with Dr. Halley, by Dr. Bevis.* Phil. Trans. N° 447. p. 176.

## Apparent Time.

Ho. Min. Sec.

At 2 25 39 p. m. The beginning.

5 3 29 The end.

At the end, the sun's limb appear'd somewhat tremulous, and a small thin cloud came over it. Dr. Bevis judged the time might be relied on to two or three seconds.

*The same Eclipse observed at Edinburgh, &c. by Mr. Colin Maclaurin.* Phil. Trans. N° 447. p. 177.

In the history of eclipses, collected by Riccioli, there are very few said to be annular; and of these some have been controverted, as that seen by Clavius, at Rome, April 9. 1567, and that seen by Jessenius, at Torgou in Misnia, Feb. 25, 1598; which are both disputed by Kepler.

Some Astronomers, both ancient and modern, have been of opinion, that no eclipse can be annular: And since such seem to have been rarely observed, and Mr. Maclaurin has not met with a particular description of any of them, he gives full an account of this eclipse, as he can collect from the observations made at Edinburgh, and those communicated to him from the country.

During

During the eclipse, the sky was generally favourable in the southern parts of *Scotland*; and tho' there were great showers of snow in the north; they had sometimes a view of it. There was something very entertaining in the annular appearance a phenomenon equally new to all who saw it, that gave great delight to the curious, without striking terror into the vulgar. It extended southwards almost to *Morpeth* in *Northumberland*, and beyond *Inverness* northwards: So that a part of *England*, and almost all *Scotland*, were within its limits. Mr. *MacLaurin* had not hitherto learned how far the north limit was from *Edinburgh*; but he was inform'd, that the weather was very unfavourable there.

Ten days before the eclipse, Mr. *MacLaurin* wrote to several of his acquaintance in the country, desiring that they would determine the duration of the annular appearance as exact as possible, in hopes, by comparing their observations, to have traced the path of the centre, and the limits of this phenomenon after the example given in 1715 by Dr. *Halley*, to whom we owe the best description of an eclipse that astronomical history affords. Mr. *MacLaurin* gives an abstract of the account he receiv'd in answer to these letters, after first describing the observations at *Edinburgh*.

The times of the appearance at *Edinburgh* were determined by a pendulum clock of Mr. *Graham's*; from whom likewise Mr. *MacLaurin* had the meridian instrument by which it was examined. The meridian line was often adjusted in the usual manner; and an exact account of the transits of the sun in the meridian, and of *Procyon* in a fixt telescope, was kept by Mr. *Short* for a long time before and after the eclipse: And by comparing his observations, Mr. *MacLaurin* cannot doubt but that the times were determined with sufficient exactness; being often with him when he examined the meridian, and observing those transits; particularly the day of the eclipse, when by the sun's transit in the meridian, it was found that the clock was before the apparent time 13 min. 27 sec. and so much Mr. *MacLaurin* deducted from the times, that were mark'd during the observation.

The latitude of *Edinburgh* is commonly said to be 55 degrees 55 minutes; and by some trials, this must be near the truth, tho' in some maps and tables it be represented greater. By comparing an observation had at *Edinburgh* of the end of the lunar eclipse, Nov. 20. 1732. with an observation of the end of the same eclipse by Mr. *Geo. Graham* at his house

Bleefstreet, London, the longitude of the former is a little more than 12 minutes of time farther west.

Some days before the eclipse the Lord *Aberdour* set up a clock in the castle of *Edinburgh*, and adjusted it with Mr. *MacLaurin's* by a watch that shew'd the seconds. The clocks were both compared together the day of the eclipse at noon, by a cannon fir'd from the castle; some persons being appointed to attend each clock, and mark the seconds when they heard the sound (an allowance of two seconds and a half being made for the progress of the sound, which was determined by several trials at night) the clock in the castle was found to be before the apparent time 12 min. 19 sec. and so much is subducted from the times that were mark'd in the castle during the observation. It was agreed to give signals to one another mutually at the beginning and end of the eclipse, and at the beginning and end of the annular appearance, which was a cannon from the castle, and a musquet from the college, tho' no regard is had to these signals in marking the times of the appearances.

His Lordship made use of a reflecting telescope of 15 inches and a half focal distance, that magnified 90 times: only he observ'd the annular appearance with one of five inches and a half, that he might have a view of the whole disk of the sun at once. Mr. *Short* observ'd the beginning of the eclipse with a telescope of 15 inches and a half focal distance, that magnified 104 times; but the annular appearance with one of the same length, that also took in the whole disk of the sun, and magnified 50 times. The reflecting telescope, with which Mr. *MacLaurin* observ'd the eclipse from the beginning to the end, took in the whole disk of the sun (having been made by Mr. *Short* for this purpose) tho' the focal distance of the big speculum was nine inches and a half; and tho' it bears a higher charge, he made use of an eye glafs on this occasion, that magnifies only 50 times.

By a computation made at *Edinburgh* from Sir *Isaac Newton's* theory, Mr. *MacLaurin* expected the eclipse would begin at two hours six minutes apparent time: they therefore look'd attentively towards the south-west part of the sun's limb from two o'clock. At two hours five minutes 36 seconds was perceiv'd a depression that was just discernable on the sun's limb near that place; the signal at the college was then made, but by an accident my Lord *Aberdour* had been hinder'd from observing the sun at that time: However when he look'd for it he saw it was begun, and his signal gave general intimation

of this to the town, about 40 seconds after they had first perceiv'd it at the college; and as far as Mr. *MacLaurin* learned it was not discerned by the eye, tho' assisted with a smoky glass, till about this time.

Mr. *MacLaurin* observ'd the progress of the eclipse by helioscope; but after 10 digits were eclipsed, he returned to the telescope, to attend the beginning of the annular appearance. A little before the annulus was compleat, a remarkable point or speck of pale light appeared near the middle of the part of the moon's circumference, that was not yet come upon the disk of the sun; and a gleam of light, more faint than this point seem'd to be extended from it to each horn: He did not mark the precise time when he first perceiv'd this light, but he is satisfied that it could hardly be less than one fourth of a minute before the annular appearance began. Mr. *Short* (who was in another chamber at some distance, and made use of a larger telescope) assured Mr. *MacLaurin* that he saw it 20 seconds before the annulus was compleated.

Mr. *MacLaurin* was surpriz'd with this light at first; and did not immediately recollect, that it proceeded probably from the same crown that was seen about the moon in a total eclipse of the sun at *Naples* in 1605; and was observ'd by several persons in different parts of *Europe* in the three late total eclipses of 1706, 1715, and 1724. He did not expect to have seen this light, when so much of the sun's disk was uncover'd; but as he kept in the telescope only so much of the disk as was necessary for ascertaining the time of the formation of the annulus, this must have contributed to his discovering it: For, this light was very faint, compared with what appeared on the sun's arch near the same place the moment it was uncover'd, and the annulus compleated.

Most of those, who observ'd the eclipse with telescope mention in their letters to Mr. *MacLaurin*, that as the annulus was forming, they perceiv'd the light to break in several irregular spots near the point of contact, and that the moon's limb seem'd to be indented there. Some express themselves, as if those irregular parts had appeared to them in a kind of motion.

In a letter to lord *Aberdour*, it is described by Mr. *Bayne* professor of the municipal law in the following manner:

' What appeared to me most entertaining, says he, consider'd as an object of sight was, when the extremities of the horns, formed upon the face of the sun, seem'd, as if they had been in the action of uniting their points, the inequalities of

the extremity of the moon's disk exhibited the appearance  
as of small bodies in particular motion.'

There was not any undulation at this time on the circumference of the sun. Mr. *MacLaurin* finds that such appearances of a tremulous motion in certain periods of solar eclipses are mention'd by *Hevelius* and others.

Lord *Aberdour* observ'd the beginning of the annular appearance with a smaller telescope, and perceiv'd only a narrow streak of a dusky red light to tinge the dark edge of the moon, immediately before the ring was compleated, and after it was dissolv'd.

At three hours, 25 minutes, 55 seconds, the circumference of the sun appeared compleat, and perfectly circular. At the same instant the signal from the castle was made, and in a second or two the cannon from the castle was heard. The *annulus* appear'd to the eye to be central for some time; but in the telescope it was always broader towards the south east than towards the north-west part of the sun's disk. The breadth appeared much greater to the naked eye than could have been expected from the difference of the semi-diameters of the sun and moon. This was so remarkable, that such a phenomenon must have confirm'd those astronomers in their opinion, who imagined that the diameter of the moon is contracted in her conjunctions with the sun. This appearance proceeded chiefly, Mr. *MacLaurin* supposes, from the light's incroaching on the shadow, as is usual: But whatever was the cause, every body seem'd surpriz'd that the moon appear'd so small upon the sun's disk.

It was observed that the motion of the moon appear'd more quick in the formation and dissolution of the *annulus*, than during its continuance. This is particularly describ'd by Mr. *Fulerton* in a very exact account of the eclipse, as it appear'd at his seat, at *Crosby*, near *Ayr*, on the west coast of *Scotland*.

'The *annulus* appear'd to be nearly of an uniform breadth during the greater part of the time of its continuance, but seem'd to go off very suddenly: So that when the disk of the moon approach'd to the concave line of the sun's disk, they seem'd to run together like two contiguous drops of water on a table when they touch one another; and he adds, 'that it came on in the same way.'

This appearance seems to be accountable from the same optical deception as the former.

During the appearance of the *annulus*, the direct light of the sun was very considerable; but the places, shaded from his

light, appear'd gloomy. There was a dusk in the atmosphere especially towards the north and east. In those chambers they had not their lights westwards, the obscurity was considerable. *Venus* appear'd plainly, and continued visible long after the *annulus* was dissolv'd ; and Mr. *Maclaurin* was told that other stars were seen by some : One Gentleman is positive, that being shaded from the sun, he discerned some stars northward which he thinks by their position were in *Ursa major*.

It was very cold at this time ; a little thin snow fell, and some little pools of water in the College area, where there was no ice at two o'clock, were froze at four. A reflecting telescope of a large size, and of a much greater aperture than ordinary, that took in the whole sun, and burned cloth very quickly through the tinged glass at the beginning of the eclipse, and on that account could not then be us'd with safety, was that by which Mr. *Short* observ'd the annular appearance. Some curious Gentlemen found, that a common burning glass, which kindles tinder at 3 hours 59 minutes, and burned cloth at 4 hours 8 minutes, had no effect during the annular appearance, and for some time before and after it.

Those things Mr. *Maclaurin* mentions mostly on the report of others : For, during the greater part of this appearance I was observing thro' the telescope the progress of the moon upon the sun's disk.

The first internal contact of the disks, at the formation of the *annulus*, was considerably below the west point of the sun's disk ; and the second contact, at the dissolution of the *annulus*, seem'd to be about 10 degrees eastwards from the north point of zenith of the disk : But he did not find that the position of those points of contact could be estimated with exactness on several accounts. The breadth of the *annulus* towards the south-east part of the sun's disk was at least double its breadth towards the opposite part, about the middle of this appearance. An apparatus, by which he was in hopes of being able to determine those things more accurately, was not ready. He propos'd to have made some estimation of the ratio of the continuance of the annular appearance, where it was central to its continuance at *Edinburgh*, from that of the arithmetical mean betwixt the numbers that should express the proportion of the greatest and least breadth of the *annulus* to the geometric mean betwixt the same numbers ; or from the ratio of the radius to the sine of half the arch, intercepted between the two points of contact.

points of internal contact: But he did not obtain these ratio's with sufficient exactness.

At 3 hours 31 minutes 43 seconds, the *annulus* was dissolv'd, after having continu'd 5 minutes, 48 seconds: And here again the signals were heard immediately after one another. The middle of the eclipse was, therefore, at 3 hours, 28 minutes, 49 seconds. In this the time of observation did not agree so well with the time by computation, as in the beginning of the eclipse, the difference being here about four minutes. The irregularities of the moon's surface occasion'd the same appearances, in some measure, as at the formation of the *annulus*.

When Mr. *MacLaurin* returned to the helioscope, there was some time lost in directing it towards the sun; and when he got the image in a due position, there was less than eleven digits eclipsed; and he suspects that it never amounted to full eleven digits. He had no micrometer.

After taking some more digits, he went with Sir *John Clerk* to a neighbouring house, to observe the end of the eclipse. By a signal that was made to the person who attended the clock (two seconds being subducted, that were lost in making the signal) the end was at 4 hours 44 minutes 51 seconds. The wind blew hard at this time; so that the telescope could not be kept very steady, and there was some undulation on the circumference of the sun: But Mr. *MacLaurin* cannot think that the error of this observation can exceed three or four seconds, the circumference of the sun appearing to him complete at that instant.

Mr. *MacLaurin* now subjoins the observations made in the Castle and College in one view; whereby it appears that they agree precisely as to the continuance of the annular appearance (a coincidence that could not have been expected) according to the numbers taken by those who attended the clocks.

In the College In the Castle

	H.	M.	S.	H.	M.	S.
The beginning of the eclipse at	2	5	36			
The beginning of the annular ap-?	3	25	55	3	25	53
pearance	5					
The end of the annular appearance	3	31	43	3	31	41
The end of the eclipse	4	44	51	4	44	48

By

By Lord *Aberdour's* observations, the lowermost and large of the two spots that appear'd upon the upper part of the sun's disk, was touch'd by the moon at 3 hours, 4 minutes 40 seconds; and this spot was entirely cover'd at 3 hours 5 minutes, 19 seconds. Mr. *Short* observ'd another spot at the circumference of the moon, at 2 hours, 24 minutes, 51 seconds.

Tho' the observations of the digits could not, on several accounts, be made with so much exactness, as the preceding Mr. *MacLaurin* subjoins some of them

	H.	M.
The sun was eclipsed	2 digits at 2	21
	6 dig.	2 50
After the annular appearance	9 dig.	3 45
	8 dig.	3 52
	7 dig.	3 59
	6 dig.	4 6

At *Hopeton house*, 9 miles west, and a little northward from *Edinburgh*, the Lord *Hope* observ'd the annular appearance to begin at 3 hours, 25 minutes, the end of this appearance at 3 hours, 31 minutes; and the end of the eclipse 4 hours, 44 minutes and a half. His Lordship was obliged to observe the eclipse at a distance from the clock, and to determine the times by a pocket-watch, that had been adjusted by very good dial that day at 12 o'clock; but he assur'd Mr. *MacLaurin*, that the duration of the annular appearance was 13 minutes, as near as could be judged by a watch that did not shew the seconds. The moon appear'd to touch the larger spot above-mentioned at 3 hours, 4 minutes, and cover'd it in about half a minute. The emersion of the same spot was at 4 hours 13 minutes. A lesser spot, higher on the sun's disk, was not cover'd till 11 minutes after the greater spot, but appear'd rather sooner than it.

At *Crosby*, on the west coast of *Scotland*, about 4 miles north from *Air*, Mr. *Fullerton* observ'd the eclipse to begin at 2 o'clock. A distinct *annulus* was formed about 20 minutes after three, which continu'd exactly seven minutes, measur'd by a pendulum vibrating seconds. It appear'd rather broader on the lower verge of the sun; but the difference must have been very small: For, it was but bare discernible in a species of the eclipse six inches over, cast on a piece of paper behind the eyepiece of a telescope six foot long. He adds, that the day-light

is not greatly obscur'd, appearing only so much dimmer than the sun, as that of the sun is, when seen thro' a very gentle mist on a fine morning in April or May.

Sir Thomas Wallace found that the annular appearance continued at his house near Lockryan in Galloway five minutes.

From the observation at Crosby, the centre of the annular umbra seems to have enter'd Scotland not far from Irwine. It proceeded afterwards towards the east, with a considerable inclination northwards; and probably left Scotland not far from Montrose on the east coast: For, Mr. Auchterlony found at the annular appearance continu'd there seven minutes, as far as he could judge by a common watch. The annulus likewise appeared to him of an uniform breadth, thro' a common telescope. This observation, tho' not so exact as that at Crosby, is however confirmed by that at St. Andrews, which will be mention'd hereafter.

These two observations at Crosby and Montrose were made nearer the path of the centre, than any others that were communicated to Mr. Maclaurin.

As to the southern limit of this appearance, the eclipse was annular at Newcastle; and there wanted about 40 degrees of the sun's limb to appear in order to form an annulus, according to the observation of Mr. Isaac Thomson.

The whole duration of the eclipse was 50 seconds less by Mr. Thomson's observation than by that made at Edinburgh; and the larger spot was hid 1 hour, 9 minutes, 35 seconds by Mr. Macaulay's observation: The digits eclips'd at its immersion were 7,7; and at its emersion 4,1.

The eclipse was not annular at Morpeth; from whence Mr. John Wilson writes, that the body of the moon appear'd almost entirely on that of the sun; and that to the naked eye, the disk of the sun seem'd to be almost round.

But of all the observations that were communicated to Mr. Maclaurin, that of Mr. Long at Longframlington (seven miles on this side of Morpeth) determines the southern limit with the greatest exactness. The annulus, he says, was very small there upon the upper part, and the duration 40 minutes 41 half seconds, measur'd by a pendulum 9,81 inches long; from which we may conclude, that the limit was very near this place. This curious observation, with several others, was communicated by Mr. Mark at Dunbar.

Mr. Maclaurin receiv'd no accounts concerning this appearance from any places on the west coast of England.

At

At *Alnwick* in *Northumberland* the eclipse was annular but he had not heard that the time of its continuance was measur'd.

At *Berwick* the annular appearance continued betwixt 4 and 5 minutes.

The end of the eclipse at *Dunbar*, by Mr. *Mark's* observation, was at 4 hours, 48 minutes, 16 seconds; but there was some mistake committed in reckoning the vibrations of the pendulum in measuring the continuance of the *annulus*.

At *St. Andrews*, Mr. *Charles Gregory* and Mr. *David Young*, Professors in the University, observ'd this appearance continue precisely six minutes, by a pendulum clock. By figure of the *annulus*, taken from its image, projected through a telescope upon a paper screen, the breadth towards the south east part of the sun's disk is rather more than double its breadth towards the opposite part.

The observation at *Montrose* has been mention'd above.

At *Aberdeen* the *annulus* was observ'd by Mr. *John Stewart* Professor of Mathematics, for three minutes, two seconds: was almost central, when the clouds depriv'd him of any farther view of it; he thinks it probable, that it continued there about six minutes. Several Gentlemen who live on the coast northwards from *Aberdeen* were desir'd to observe the continuance of the *annulus*; but Mr. *MacLaurin* does not find that any of them saw this phenomenon from the beginning to the end.

At *Elgin* the eclipse was observ'd annular at 3 hours, 29 minutes (the larger part of the ring being uppermost) by Mr. *Hewitt*, who had a view of it for about 30 seconds; but by reason of intervening clouds could not determine the beginning or end of this appearance.

At *Castle-Gordon*, Mr. *Gregory* had one view of the eclipse while it was annular, but could make no farther observation by reason of clouds.

At *Inverness*, the eclipse was annular for some minutes, Mr. *MacLaurin* was informed by several Gentlemen; but they did not measure the precise time of its continuance.

By the accounts Mr. *MacLaurin* had from *Fort Augustus* and *Fort William*, it is doubtful, whether the eclipse was annular in those places or not.

*Fort Augustus* is at the west end of *Loch Ness*, and probably was not far from the northern limit of this phenomenon.

Mr. *MacLaurin* had hitherto receiv'd no accounts of this appearance from any place farther northwards, or from any place in the west, but those already mention'd. Some Gentlemen in *Wiggleshire*, who observ'd this eclipse, were depriv'd of a view of the *annulus* by the clouds.

Mr. *Walker*, an ingenious Gentleman at *Frazerburgh* on the north coast, found, that from the time of the *ring's* beginning to appear upon the lower and western part of the sun's disk, till it began to break on the east and upper part, there were 300 vibrations of a pendulum; or five minutes. The *ring* seem'd somewhat narrower even at the middle of the eclipse on the lower part.

This is the sum of what Mr. *MacLaurin* was able to learn concerning the observations of this eclipse, made in *Scotland*, and in the neighbouring parts of *England*.

He made some computations relating to the extent of the annular *penumbra*, and the direction and velocity of its motion; but as he had not a sufficient number of exact observations, by which he might examine them, it would be of little use to describe them.

Had the weather been more favourable in the north, and had Mr. *MacLaurin's* request of having the duration of the annular appearance measur'd, been made more publick before the eclipse, after Dr. *Halley's* example in 1715, he doubts not but he should have been able to have given a more exact account of the progress of the centre of this phenomenon, and of its limits; but he was discouraged from publishing any thing concerning it, by the bad fortune in several late eclipses, of which the clouds had not allow'd the least view.

Mr. *MacLaurin* was informed, that there was very little notice taken of this eclipse by the populace in the country; and we cannot but add, that several Gentlemen of very good credit, who are not in the least short-fighted, assur'd him, that about the middle of the annular appearance they were not able to discern the moon upon the sun, when they look'd without a smoak'd glass, or something equivalent.

Mr. *MacLaurin* takes notice of this; because it may contribute to account for what at first sight appears surprising, namely, that there are so few annular eclipses in the lists, collected by authors.

*Kepler* in his *Astron. Optic.* does not seem to acknowledge, that any eclipse, truly annular, had ever been observ'd.

There are none mention'd by Riccioli from the year 334 to 1567; tho' there are 13 or 14 total eclipses recorded within that period: Yet it is allow'd that the extent and duration of the annular appearance may be considerably greater in the former, than of the darkness in the latter. It may have contributed to this, that annular eclipses must have been rather incident in the winter season in the northern hemisphere, and the eclipses have been more readily total in the summer, when the chance of being visible was greater, and the season more favourable for observing them. But perhaps the chief reason, why few annular eclipses appear upon record, is, that in most cases they have not been distinguish'd from ordinary partial ones. The darkness distinguish'd total eclipses, or such as were very nearly so; and it is these chiefly that historians mention.

There are two central eclipses of the sun still famous among the populace in Scotland; that of March 29, 1652 was total there, and that day is known amongst them by the appellation of *Mirk Monday*.

The memory of the eclipse of Feb. 25, 1598. is also preserved amongst them, and that day they term, in their way, *black Saturday*. There is a tradition that some persons in the north lost their way in the time of this eclipse, and perish'd in the snow.

There was a remarkable total eclipse of the sun in Scotland June 17, 1433. the memory of which is now lost amongst the populace; but it appears from a passage in a manuscript in the College-library at Edinburgh, that after their usual manner was formerly call'd by them, the *black hour*. It is described thus:

‘ Hoc anno fuit mirabilis eclipsis solis, 17<sup>mo</sup> die mensis Iunii, hora quasi tertia post meridiem; & per dimidium horae tenebræ tanquam in nocte supergressæ sunt superficiem terræ ita ut nihil obtutibus humanis pervium fuit; unde abhinc vulgariter dicta fuit *hora nigra*.’

This eclipse is not in Riccioli's catalogue, but is mentioned by him in another place, *Schol. cap. 2. L. 5.*

By a computation of this eclipse, the sun was within two degrees of his *apogæum*, and the moon within thirteen degrees of her *perigæum*: So that this must have been a remarkable eclipse. The progress of the shadow was towards the south-east; and *Setibus Calvifius* cites the *Turkish annals* for its being total in some part of their dominions.

On Feb. 25. in the evening was look'd for the occultation of *Aldebaran* by the moon; but the star passed by the upper

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orn, without being hid, at a distance from it, that was by estimation nearly equal to the distance betwixt the nearest part of the spots *Eudoxus* and *Aristoteles*.

*An Account of the Observations of the Solar Eclipse, made at Edinburgh, on Feb. 18. 1736-7. by Sir John Clerk. Phil. Trans. N° 447. p. 195.*

THE 18th of February, 1736-7 was a very fine bright day for observing the eclipse; and never was any thing of that kind, Sir John Clerk believes, observ'd with more exactness.

In several places for 10 miles round the city of *Edinburgh*, as well as in it, were some skillful persons stationed for that purpose: Sir John happen'd to be in the castle, which is an eminence of at least 5 or 600 feet in height, besides a great ascent from the level of the sea to the foot of the rock, upon which it is situated.

Mr. *MacLaurin*, professor of mathematics, had placed himself at a window in the college; others were sent where the eclipse, as was supposed, would be perfectly central, about 12 or 14 miles farther north.

A gun from the castle was fir'd at 22 seconds after 12, mean time (or 12 minutes, 22 seconds before 12, apparent time) upon which, by agreement, the clocks and watches of the observers were adjusted.

A second cannon was discharged precisely when the eclipse began, which was at five minutes, 36 seconds after two.

A third was discharg'd when the annular appearance began, which was 25 minutes, 55 seconds after three; its continuance was five minutes, 48 seconds.

A fourth cannon was fired at the end of the eclipse, which was at 44 minutes, 50 seconds after four: all reckon'd by apparent time.

There were half a score good reflecting telescopes to make these observations, and the calculations agreed perfectly; so that they may be depended upon as very exact.

This was not done as a matter of mere curiosity, but to assist in ascertaining the motions of the moon on Sir *Isaac Newton's* theory, upon which a good deal of the doctrine of the longitude will depend. Sir *Isaac's* calculation, as to the beginning of this eclipse, was pretty right; but not so well as to its central appearance.

Two spots in the sun appear'd very distinctly, as they enter'd under the moon's body; one was a little above the cen-

tral or horizontal line of the sun, of the shape as represented in Fig. 7. Plate XI. The other was near the edge, on the east quarter. The first, compar'd with the sun's diameter, was larger than the disk of our earth ; it was dark in the middle and certainly emitted no fire or light.

The edge of the moon appeared a little ragged or scabrous but not mountainous, because of the sun's light. There was no considerable darkness, only the ground was cover'd with a kind of a dark greenish colour. Two stars appear'd, the planet *Venus*, and another farther eastward.

This Account Sir John assures, is what may be depended upon.

*Observations of the same Solar Eclipse at Trinity-College Cambridge, and at Kettering; by Mr. Charles Mafon. Phil Trans. N° 447. p. 197.*

H.	M.	S.
2	36	40
5	14	12 exact

The beginning by the clock — at  
The end — — —

Digi- ts	The Eclipse observed.					
	Increasing.			Decreasing.		
	H.	M.	S.	H.	M.	S.
0 $\frac{1}{2}$	2	39	30	5	11	50
1	2	43	0	5	9	0
1 $\frac{1}{2}$	2	46	40			
2	2	50	25			
2 $\frac{1}{2}$	2	54	15	4	59	30
3	2	58	5			
3 $\frac{1}{2}$	3	1	55			
4	3	5	50			
4 $\frac{1}{2}$	3	9	50			
5	3	14	0	4	42	55
5 $\frac{1}{2}$	3	18	10	3	39	10
6	3	22	20	4	35	20
6 $\frac{1}{2}$	3	26	30			
7	3	30	40	4	27	40
7 $\frac{1}{2}$	3	34	50	4	23	55
8	3	39	30	4	20	10
8 $\frac{1}{2}$				4	16	30
9	Clouds.			4	13	0
9 $\frac{1}{2}$				4	10	10
10				4	7	50

		H.	M.	S.
The lesser spot immersed	—	at	2	58 50
The greater spot begun to immerge	—		3	33 5
The middle			3	33 20
The end			3	33 37

Times observed at *Kettering*, as follows :

		Ho.	Min.
The beginning	—	—	2 21
2 Digits	—	—	2 36
Centre	—	—	{ 3 7
End	—	—	4 22
Great spotimmerged	—	—	4 59
		3	18

N. B. The observatory clock was one minute 50 seconds too slow, which, being added all the way, will give true time.

Most of the preceding observations are tolerably exact ; but the wind, and other difficulties, make some of them a little precarious. The time is nearly true, if the error be corrected depending upon the truth of a meridian telescope.

A Solar Eclipse observ'd on the 1st of March 1737, N. S. at the Observatory of Bononia. Phil. Trans. N° 447. p. 199. Translated from the Latin.

THE beginning of this eclipse preceeded the calculation upwards of seven minutes of time : For, at three ho. 33 min. 36 sec. some part of the edge of the sun, when view'd through a smoak'd glass that was fitted to an 11 foot telescope, appeared to be indented by the moon, when a little before, namely, at 33 seconds, the sun appeared quite round through the same telescope : But the calculation made the beginning at 3 ho. 41 min.

Afterwards the digits eclipsed were observ'd by transmitting the ray of the sun through a six foot telescope, and receiving it on a white screen, on which was drawn a circle commensurate to the image of the sun, and divided into digits and half digits : But the wind shaking the machine did not a little mar the observation. The more certain phases seem to be those that follow :

## H. M.

- 3 40 About a digit eclipsed  
 3 48 Two digits  
 3 57 Three dig.  
 4 6 Four dig.  
 4 15 $\frac{1}{2}$  Five dig.
- 

- 4 35 Seven digits  
 4 45 Seven digits and a half; which seem'd to be the greatest obscuration.  
 4 55 Again seven dig. the eclipse now decreasing.

Afterwards when the species of the sun, inclining to the west, was seen too tremulous and fluctuating, as also evidently turn'd oval from a round figure, measuring the digits, was forbore as a thing not sufficiently certain.

Some maculæ appear'd in the sun, particularly three, whose positions taken from the observations made that day at noon are represented in Fig. 8. Plate XI.

With the above-mentioned telescope of 11 foot, the occultations of two of them were determined, as follows:

## Ho. Min. Sec.

- 4 23 18 The moon's limb touches the corona of the *macula A*  
 23 49 It begins to cover the *nucleus* of the *macula A*  
 24 25 It hides the whole *nucleus*.  
 26 14 It just touches the *macula B*.  
 26 31 It entirely covers it.

*The same Eclipse observed from the Aventine Hill at Rome by the Abbé de Revillas. Phil. Trans. N° 447. p. 200  
 Translated from the Latin.*

**T**H E sun's species, transmitted through a telescope of Campani's, six foot in length, was received upon a white screen, on which was drawn a circle equal to the species, and divided into 12 digits: The phases observ'd in this manner are as follows:

H. M. S. p. m.

3 43	4	The sun's limb is now found to be a little ob-
		scur'd by that of the moon.
51	50	One digit eclipsed
4 0	40	Two digits
9	30	Three dig.
18	20	Four dig.
27	10	Five digits.
36	0	Six dig. while the limb of the moon touches the centre of the sun, thick clouds intercept the view of both luminaries, and of the fol- lowing phases of the eclipse.

*A partial Eclipse of the Sun, observed at Wittemberg in Saxony, Mar. 1. 1737. N. S. by M. Weidler. Phil. Trans. N° 447. p. 201. Translated from the Latin.*

M. Weidler observ'd the phases of the emersion, as represented in Fig. 9. Plate XI.

			H. M. S.
VIII	Dig. eclipsed at	—	4 50 31 p. m.
VII $\frac{3}{4}$	—	—	58 16
VII $\frac{1}{2}$	—	—	5 1 56
VII $\frac{1}{4}$	—	—	5 26
VII	—	—	8 16
VI $\frac{1}{2}$	—	—	10 16 The sun afterwards inclining to the west became overcast.

The beginning of the eclipse could not be seen by reason of clouds.

*A Proposal to make the Poles of a celestial Globe move in a circle round the Poles of the Ecliptic; by Dr. Ebenezer Latham. Phil. Trans. N° 447. p. 201.*

DR. LATHAM communicated to the Royal Society the following proposal, relating to an improvement in the construction of the globes of the heavens.

As we now have them, they are formed for the present age only, and do not serve the purposes of chronology and history, as they might, if the Poles on which they turn were contriv'd to move in a circle round those of the ecliptic, according to the present obliquity of the latter. By this means we might have a view of the heavens suited to every period, and that would answer the antient descriptions, those of *Eudoxus*, for instance, who is supposed to have borrowed his from the most early observations; and of *Hipparchus*, &c. Nor could

could any contrivance better enable the meanest reader to judge of the merits of the controversy about the *Argonautic* expedition as far as it depends on this: For, it will verify to the sight the place of the colures, &c. at any time.

The Equator in the Doctor's method must be fix'd to the brazen meridian, &c.

N. B. That globes, to answer the end here proposed, tho' differently constructed, had long before been made and publish'd by Mr. Senex, who gave in to the *Royal Society* the following account of his contrivance.

*A contrivance to make the Poles of the diurnal Motion in a Celestial Globe pass round the Poles of the Ecliptic; by Mr. John Senex. Phil. Trans. N° 447. p. 203.*

THE poles of the diurnal motion do not enter into the globe, but are affix'd at one end to two shoulders or arms of bras, at the distance of 23 deg. and  $\frac{1}{2}$  from the poles of the ecliptic. These shoulders at the other end are strongly fasten'd on to an iron axis, which passeth thorough the poles of the ecliptic, and is made to move round, but with a very stiff motion: So that when it is adjusted to any point of the ecliptic, which you desire the equator may intersect, the diurnal motion of the globe on its axis will not be able to disturb it.

When it is to be adjusted for any time past or to come, bring one of the brazen shoulders under the meridian, and holding it fast to the meridian with one hand, turn the globe about with the other in such manner, that the point of the ecliptic, which you would have the equator to intersect, may pass under no degrees of the brazen meridian: Then holding a pencil perpendicular to that point, and turning the globe about, it will describe the equator, as it was posited at that time; and transferring the pencil to 23 degrees and  $\frac{1}{2}$ , and 66 degrees and  $\frac{1}{2}$  on the brazen meridian, the tropics and polar circles will be describ'd for the same time.

By this contrivance the celestial globe may be so adjusted, as to exhibit not only the risings and settings of the stars, in all ages, and in all latitudes, but the other phenomena likewise, that depend upon the motion of the diurnal axis round the annual one.

*aaaaa* (Fig. 10. Plate XI.) represents a section of the celestial globe.

*E* *E* a strong iron axis, passing thro' the poles of the ecliptic.

be two strong arms of brass, screw'd on to the ends of the iron axis at *d*.

*P P* the axis or poles of the diurnal motion (by which the globe is hung in the brass meridian) rivetted on to the other ends of the brass arms, and which may be carried round the poles of the ecliptic, by the iron axis; but with so stiff a motion, as not to disturb the diurnal rotation on the poles *P P*.

*The Solution of Kepler's Problem; by Mr. Machin. Phil. Trans. N° 447: p. 205.*

SEVERAL attempts have been made at different times; but if Mr. *Machin* mistake not, never any hitherto with tolerable success, towards the solution of the problem, propos'd by *Kepler*; namely, *to divide the area of a semicircle into given parts by a line from a given point of the diameter, in order to find an universal rule for the motion of a body in an elliptic orbit.*

For, among the several methods offer'd, some are only true in speculation, but are really of no service; others are not different from *Kepler's* own, which he judged improper: And as to the rest, they are all some way or other so limited and confined to particular conditions and circumstances, as still to leave the problem in general untouched.

To be more particular, it is evident, that all constructions by mechanical curves are seeming solutions only but in reality unapplicable; that the roots of infinite series's are, on account of their known limitations in all respects, so far from affording an appearance of being sufficient rules, that they cannot well be suppos'd as offer'd for any thing more than exercises in a method of calculation: And then as to the universal method, which proceeds by a continued correction of the errors of a false position, it is, when duly consider'd, no method of solution at all in itself; because unless there be some antecedent rule or hypothesis to begin the operation (as suppose that of an uniform motion about the upper focus, for the orbit of a planet; or that of a motion in a parabola for the perihelion part of the orbit of a comet; or some other such) it would be impossible to proceed one step in it.

But as no general rule has ever hitherto been laid down, to assist this method; so as to make it always operate, it is the same in effect, as if there were no method at all. And accordingly in experience it is found, that there is no rule now subsisting but what is absolutely useless in the elliptic orbits of

comets: For, in such cases there is no other way to proceed but that which was made use of by *Kepler*; namely to compute a table for some part of the orbit; and therein examining if the time, to which the place is requir'd, will fall out anywhere in that part. So that, upon the whole, Mr. *Machin* thinks it evident, that this problem (contrary to the received opinion) has never hitherto been advanced one step towards a true solution; a consideration which will furnish a sufficient plea for meddling with a subject so frequently handled; especially if what is offer'd shall at the same time appear to contribute towards supplying the main defect.

*Lemma 1.* The tangent of an arch being given, to find the tangent of its multiple.

Let  $r$  be the radius of the circle,  $t$  the tangent of a given arch  $A$ , and  $n$  a given number; and let  $T$  be the tangent of the multiple arch  $n \times A$  to be found.

Then if  $\rho$  be put for  $-rr$  and  $\tau\tau$  for  $-tt$ .

$$\text{The tangent } T \text{ will be } \frac{r + t^{\frac{n}{2}} - r - \tau^{\frac{n}{2}}}{r + t^{\frac{n}{2}} + r - \tau^{\frac{n}{2}}} \rho$$

Which binomials being rais'd according to Sir *Isaac Newton's* rule, the fictitious quantities  $\tau$  and  $\rho$  will disappear, and the tangent  $T$  will become equal to

$$\begin{aligned} n t &= \frac{n \cdot n-1 \cdot n-2}{1 \cdot 2} \cdot \frac{t^3}{r^2} + \frac{n \cdot n-1 \cdot n-2}{1 \cdot 2} \cdot \frac{n-3 \cdot n-4}{3 \cdot 4} \cdot \frac{t^5}{r^5} - \text{etc.} \\ t &\equiv \frac{n \cdot n-1 \cdot t t}{1 \cdot 2} \cdot \frac{t t}{rr} + \frac{n \cdot n-1 \cdot n-2 \cdot n-3}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} \cdot \frac{t^4}{4} \cdot \frac{t^4}{r^4} - \text{etc.} \end{aligned}$$

This theorem (which Mr. *Machin* formerly found for the quadrature of the circle, at a time when it was not known in *England* to have been invented before) has now been common for many years: For which reason he premises it at present, without any proof, only for the sake of some uses that have not hitherto been made of it.

*Corollary 1.* From this theorem for the tangent, the sine, suppose  $Y$ , and cosine  $Z$  of the multiple arch  $n \times A$  may be readily found.

For, if  $y$  be the sine, and  $z$  the cosine of the given arch  $A$ ,  
then putting  $vv$  for  $-yy$ , and substituting  $\frac{ry}{z}$  for  $r$ , and  $\frac{rv}{z}$   
for  $r$ , and  $\frac{rT}{\sqrt{rr+TT}}$  for  $Y$ .

The fine  $Y$  will be  $\frac{|z+v|^n - |z-v|^n}{2r^n}$ .

The cosine  $Z$  will be  $\frac{|z+v|^n + |z-v|^n}{2r^n}$ .

Each of these may be differently express'd in a series, either by the sine and cosine conjointly, or by either of them separately.

Thus  $Y$ , the sine of the multiple arch  $n \times A$ , may be in either of these two forms, viz.

$$\frac{z^{n-1}}{r^{n-1}} y \text{ in } n - \frac{n-1}{2} \cdot \frac{n-2}{3} \cdot A \frac{y^2}{z^2} + \frac{n-3}{4} \cdot \frac{n-4}{5} \cdot$$

$$\frac{y^4}{z^4} \text{ &c. or } = ny - \frac{nn-1}{2 \cdot 3 rr} A y^3 - \frac{nn-9}{4 \cdot 5 rr} By^5 - \frac{nn-25}{6 \cdot 7 rr} Cy^7 \text{ &c.}$$

Wherein the letters 'A' 'B' 'C', &c. stand, as usual, for the coefficients of the preceding terms.

The first of these theorems terminates, when  $n$  is any integer number, the other (which is Sir Isaac Newton's rule, and is deriv'd from the former by substituting  $\sqrt{rr-yy}$  for  $z$ ) terminates when  $n$  is any odd number.

The cosine  $Z$  may, in like manner, be in either of these two forms, viz.

$$= \frac{z^n}{r^{n-1}} \text{ in } \frac{1-n}{1} \cdot \frac{n-1}{2} \cdot \frac{y^2}{z^2} + \frac{n}{1} \cdot \frac{n-1}{2} \cdot \frac{n-2}{3} \cdot \frac{n-3}{4} \cdot \frac{y^4}{z^4}$$

$$- \text{ &c. or } = r - \frac{nn}{2rr} A y^3 - \frac{nn-4}{3 \cdot 4 rr} By^5 - \frac{nn-16}{5 \cdot 6 rr} Cy^7 \text{ &c.}$$

The latter of which terminates when the number  $n$  is even, and the other as before, when it is any integer.

Corol 2. Hence the sine, cosine, and tangent of any submultiple part of an arch, suppose  $\frac{1}{n} A$ , may be determined thus;

The tangent of  $\frac{1}{n} A$  will be  $\frac{r + \tau|^{\frac{1}{n}} - r - \tau|^{\frac{1}{n}}}{r + \tau|^{\frac{1}{n}} + r - \tau|^{\frac{1}{n}}} p.$

The sine of  $\frac{1}{n} A$  will be  $\frac{z + v|^{\frac{1}{n}} - z - v|^{\frac{1}{n}}}{2r^{\frac{1}{n}}} p.$

For, these equations will arise from the transposition and reduction of the former for the tangent and sine of the multiple arch, upon the substitution of  $x, y, z$ , and  $A$  for  $T, Y, Z$  and  $n \times A$ .

*Cor. 3.* Hence regular polygons of any given number of sides may be inscrib'd within, or circumscrib'd without, a given arch of a circle: For, if the number  $n$  express the double of the number of sides to be inscribed within, or circumscribed about the given arch  $A$ ; then one of the inscrib'd sides will be the double of the sine, and one of the circumscrib'd sides the double of the tangent of the submultiple part of the arch, *viz.*  $\frac{1}{n} A$ .

*Lemma 2.* To find the length of the arch of a circle within certain limits, by means of the tangent and sine of the arch.

Let  $t$  be the tangent,  $y$  the sine, and  $z$  the cosine of the arch  $A$ , whose length is to be determined; and let  $p, \tau, v$  be expounded as before, then if any number  $n$  be taken, the arch of

the circle will be always less than  $\frac{r + \tau|^{\frac{1}{n}} - r - \tau|^{\frac{1}{n}}}{r + \tau|^{\frac{1}{n}} + r - \tau|^{\frac{1}{n}}} \times np.$

and bigger than  $\frac{z + v|^{\frac{1}{n}} - z - v|^{\frac{1}{n}}}{2r^{\frac{1}{n}}} \times np,$

For, if, by the preceeding corollaries, a regular rectilineal polygon be inscrib'd within, and another without, the arch  $A$ , each having half as many sides, as is exprest by the number  $n$ ; then will the former of these quantities be the length of the bow of the circumscrib'd polygon (or the sum of all its sides) which is always bigger; and the latter will be the length of the bow of the inscrib'd polygon, which is always less, than the arch of the circle, how great soever the number  $n$  be taken.

*Cor. 1.* Hence the series's for the rectification of the arch of a circle may be deriv'd.

For, by converting the binomials into the form of a series, that the fictitious quantities,  $p$ ,  $r$ ,  $v$  may be destroy'd; it will appear, that no number  $n$  can be taken so large as to make the inscribed polygon so big, or the circumscribed so little as the series  $\frac{ry}{z} - \frac{ry^3}{3z^3} + \frac{ry^5}{5z^5} - \frac{ry^7}{7z^7} + \text{ &c.}$  in one case; or its equal  $z - \frac{z^3}{3r^2} + \frac{z^5}{5r^4} - \frac{z^7}{7r^6} + \text{ &c.}$  in the other case.

Wherefore, since the quantity denoted by the sum of the terms in either of these series is always bigger than any inscrib'd polygon, and always less than any circumscribed, it must therefore be equal to the arch of the circle.

*Cor. 2.* If, in the first of the above series's, the root  $\sqrt{rr - yy}$  be extracted and substituted for  $z$ , there will arise the other series of Sir Isaac Newton, for giving the arch from the sine; namely,

$$\begin{aligned} y + \frac{y^3}{6r^2} + \frac{3y^5}{40r^4} + \frac{5y^7}{112r^6} + \text{ &c. or otherwise} \\ = y + \frac{1}{1.2.3} \times \frac{y^3}{r^2} + \frac{3.3}{1.2.3.4.5} \times \frac{y^5}{r^4} + \frac{3.3.5.5}{1.2.3.4.5.6.7} \\ \times \frac{y^7}{r^6} + \text{ &c.} \end{aligned}$$

*Scholium.* In like manner, as the arches of the polygons serve to determine the arch of the circle; so by comparing the area's of the circumscrib'd and inscrib'd polygons,  $\frac{1}{2}nrT$  and  $\frac{1}{2}nYZ$ , the area of the sector of a circle may be found; for if  $T$ ,  $Y$  and  $Z$  are the tangent, sine, and cosine of the arch  $A$ ; then by the second *Lemma*, the area of the circumscrib'd polygon will be found to be

$$\frac{1}{2}nr\rho \times \frac{\frac{1}{n} \left( r + \tau \right)^{\frac{1}{n}} - \frac{1}{n} \left( r - \tau \right)^{\frac{1}{n}}}{\frac{1}{r + \tau^{\frac{1}{n}}} + \frac{1}{r - \tau^{\frac{1}{n}}}} = \frac{1}{2}v r T.$$

And the area of the inscribed will appear to be

$$\frac{1}{2}nr\rho \times \frac{\frac{z}{n} - \frac{z}{n}}{\frac{4r^{\frac{1}{n}} - 1}{z}} = \frac{1}{2}nYZ.$$

But

But upon the expansion of these binomials it will appear that no number  $n$  can be taken so large, as to make the one so big, or the other so little, as the area denoted by the series.

$$\frac{1}{2} r \ln t = \frac{t^3}{3rr} + \frac{t^5}{5r^4} - \frac{t^7}{7r^6} + \text{E.C.}$$

So that this area being larger than any inscribed, and smaller than any circumscribed polygon, must be equal to the area of the sector. It may be farther observ'd, that as the arch or area is found from the sine, cosine, or tangent of the arch, by means of the limiting polygons; so may the sine, cosine, or tangent be found from the length of the arch by the same method.

Thus if  $A$  be the arch whose tangent  $T$ , sine  $X$ , and cosine  $Z$ , are to be determin'd; then will the tangent

$$T \text{ be } = \frac{\frac{1}{1.2.3.} \times \frac{A^3}{r^2} + \frac{1}{1.2.3.4.5.} \times \frac{A^5}{r^4} - \text{E.C.}}{1. - \frac{1}{1.2.} \times \frac{A^2}{rr} + \frac{1}{1.2.3.4.} \times \frac{A^4}{r^4} - \text{E.C.}}$$

$$\text{Sine } X = A - \frac{1}{1.2.3.} \times \frac{A^3}{r^2} + \frac{1}{1.2.3.4.5.} \times \frac{A^5}{r^4} - \text{E.C.}$$

$$\text{Cosine } Z = r - \frac{1}{1.2.} \times \frac{A^2}{r} + \frac{1}{1.2.3.4.} \times \frac{r^3}{A^2} \times \frac{A^4}{r^5} \text{ E.C.}$$

For, it may be made appear from the first *Lemma*, and its corollaries, that if in any of these theorems, as suppose in the 1st, the quantity  $A$  stand for the bow of the circumscribed polygon, then will the quantity  $T$ , exhibited by the theorem be always bigger; but if for the bow of the inscribed polygon always less than the tangent of the arch, how great soever the number  $n$  be taken; and consequently if  $A$  stands for the length of the arch itself, the quantity  $T$  must be equal to the tangent; and the like may be shewn for the sine, and *mutatis mutandis*, for the cosine.

These principles, from whence Mr. *Machin* has here derived the quadrature of the circle, which is wanted in the solution of the problem in hand, happen to be upon another account absolutely requisite for the reduction of it to a manageable equation. But he has enlarged (more than was necessary to the problem itself) on the uses of this sort of quadrature by the limiting polygons; because it is one of that kind which requires no other knowledge but what depends

the common properties of number and magnitude: And  
may serve as an instance to shew that no other is requisite  
for the establishment of principles for arithmetic and geo-  
metry; a truth which tho' certain in itself, may perhaps  
be somewhat doubtful from the nature and tendency of the present  
inquiries in mathematicks: For, among the moderns some  
have thought it necessary for the investigation of the relations  
of quantities, to have recourse to very hard hypotheses, such  
as that of number infinite and indeterminate; and that of  
magnitudes, existing in *statu fieri*, in a potential manner, which  
are actually of no bigness: And others, whose names are truly  
to be reverenced on account of their great and singular inven-  
tions, have thought it requisite to have recourse even to prin-  
ciples foreign to mathematicks, and have introduced the considera-  
tion of efficient causes and physical powers for the produc-  
tion of mathematical quantities, and have spoken of them, and  
of them, as if they were a species of quantities by themselves.

*N. B.* In the following proposition, Mr. *Machin* has, for  
convenience sake, made use of a peculiar notion for composite  
numbers, (or such quantities as are analogous to them) whose  
factors are in arithmetical progression.

The quantity express'd by this notation has a double  
index; that at the head of the root at the right hand, but  
separated by a hook to distinguish it from the common in-  
dex, denotes the number of factors; and that above, within  
the hook on the left hand, denotes the common difference  
of the factors, proceeding in a decreasing or increasing arith-  
metical progression.

Thus the quantity  $\sqrt[n+a]{\alpha}$  ( $\alpha$  denotes by its index  $n$  on  
the right hand that it is a composite quantity, consisting of  
many factors, as there are units in the number  $n$ : and the  
index  $a$  above on the left hand denotes the common difference  
of the factors, decreasing in an arithmetical progression, if  
it be positive; or increasing, if it be negative: And so signi-  
fies, in the common notion at the composite number or  
quantity  $n+a$   $n+a-a$ .  $n+a-2a$ , and so on.

For example  $\sqrt[2]{n+5}$  ( $\alpha$  is  $= n+5$ .  $n+3$ .  $n+1$ .  
 $n-1$ .  $n-3$ .  $n-5$ . consisting of six factors, whose common

difference is 2. After the same manner  $\sqrt[2]{n+4}$ . ( $\alpha$  is  $= n+4$ .  
 $n+2$ .  $n-2$ .  $n-4$  consisting of five factors. Ac-

According to which method it will easily appear, that if  $n$  be any integer, then  $\frac{1}{n+2a+2}$  will be  $= \frac{1}{nn-2a}$  according to  $n+2a+1$ , continued to such a number of double factors, as are express'd by  $a+1$ , or half the index, which in this case is an even number: So  $\frac{1}{n+2a+1}$  will be equal to  $n, nn-4, nn-16, nn-36$ , and so on, where there are to be so many double factors, as with one single factor will make up the index  $2a+1$ , which is an odd number.

If the common difference  $a$  be an unit, it is omitted:

Thus  $n^6$  is  $= n, n-1, n-2, n-3, n-4, n-5$  containing six factors.

So  $6^6$  is  $= 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1$ ; and the like for others.

If the common difference  $a$  be nothing, then the hook omitted; and it becomes the same with the geometrical power.

So  $\frac{1}{n+a}^m$  is  $= \frac{1}{n+a}^m$  according to the common notation.

*Proposition 1.* An arch less than a semicircle being given together with a point in the diameter passing thro' one of its extremities; to find, by means of the sine of a given part of an arch less than one half, the area of the sector subtended by the given arch, and comprehended in the angle, made at the given point.

Let PNA (Fig. 11. Plate XI.) be a semicircle described on the centre C, and diameter AP; and let PN be the given arch less than a semicircle, and S the given point in the diameter AP passing thro' one of the extremities of the arch NP in it. Then taking any number  $n$  bigger than 2, let PK be an arc in proportion to the given arch PN, as unity to the number  $n$ ; and let it be required to find, by means of the sine of the arch PK, the area of the sector NSP, subtended by the given arch NP, and comprehended in the angle NSP, made at the given point S.

From N and K let fall on the diameter AP the perpendiculars NM and KL, and join CN and CK.

Then let  $x$  stand for CP the semidiameter of the circle; for CS the distance of the given point S from the centre; for SP the distance of it from the extremity of the arch through which the diameter AP passes; and  $y$  for KL the sine of the arch KP in the given circle.

These substitutions being presupposed, the problem is to be divided into two cases; one when  $SP$  is less, and the other, when it is greater than the semidiameter  $CP$ .

*CASE I.* If  $SP$  be less than  $CP$ , then take an area  $H$  equal to the sum of the rectangles, express by the several terms of the following series, continued at pleasure,

$$\frac{1}{1} y + t + \frac{\frac{2}{2}}{\frac{3}{3} \mid^3} \times f \times \frac{y^3}{t^2} + \frac{9t - \frac{2}{4}}{\frac{5}{5} \mid^5} \times f \times \frac{y^5}{t^4}$$

$$+ \frac{9 \times 25t + \frac{2}{6}}{\frac{7}{7} \mid^7} \times f \times \frac{y^7}{t^6} + \text{etc.}$$

And the area  $\frac{1}{2} n \times H$  will determine the area of the sector  $SP$  at pleasure.

For, the sector  $PSN$ , being the excess of the sector  $NCP$  above the triangle  $NCS$ , will be the difference of two rectangles  $\frac{1}{2} CP \times PN - \frac{1}{2} CS \times NM$ ; but  $PN$  is the multiple of the arch  $PK$ ; namely  $n \times PK$ ; and  $NM$  is the sine of that multiple arch; wherefore if for  $CP$  be put  $t$ , for  $CS, f$ , according to the supposition; and if for  $PK$  be substituted

$$+ \frac{\frac{1}{3}}{\frac{3}{3} \mid^3} \times \frac{y^3}{t^2} + \frac{9}{\frac{5}{5} \mid^5} \times \frac{y^5}{t^4} + \frac{9 \times 25}{\frac{7}{7} \mid^7} \times \frac{y^7}{t^6} + \text{etc. by}$$

*Cor. 2. Lem. 2.* and for  $NM$ .

$$- n \cdot \frac{\frac{2}{2}}{\frac{3}{3} \mid^3} \times \frac{y^3}{t^2} + \frac{n \cdot n + \frac{2}{4}}{\frac{5}{5} \mid^5} \times \frac{y^5}{t^4} - \frac{n \cdot n + \frac{2}{6}}{\frac{7}{7} \mid^7} \times \frac{y^7}{t^6} \dots$$

as according to *Cor. 1. Lem. 1.* the area of the sector will appear in a series, as is above determin'd.

But since the number  $n$  is greater than 2, and the given arch  $PN$  is less than a semicircle; and consequently,  $KL$  or  $y$ , the sine of the submultiple arch  $PK$  is less than the semidiameter  $CP$  or  $t$ ; it may thence be easily prov'd, that the series will approximate to the just quantity of the area, at pleasure,

*Cor. 1.* Hence if the number  $n$  be taken equal to

$$\sqrt{5 + 25 + \frac{9p}{f}}, \text{ the sector N S P will be}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} npy + \frac{n^3 t - n \cdot nn - 1 \cdot p}{12tt} y^3 + \dots + \frac{n^3}{1120t^3} y^7.$$

*&c.*

For, the numerator of the coefficient of the third term in the series, that determines the area H, namely

$\frac{2}{9t - n + 3}$  is equal to  $9t - nn - 1 \cdot nn - 9 \cdot f$ ; which according to the above determination of the number  $n$ , will become nothing. Wherefore, if for  $t - p$  be put  $f$  in the second term, and the value of  $n$  be substituted for  $n$  in the third and fourth, the series for the area will appear upon reduction to be as is here laid down.

*Cor. 2.* Hence the area of the sector N S P may be always defined nearly by the terms of a cubic equation.

For, the number  $n$ , as constructed in the former Corollary, always greater than the square root of 10; and consequent

$\frac{y}{t}$  is always less than the sine of one third part of the given

arch: So that the fourth term  $\frac{n^3}{1120t^3} y^7$ , with the sum of the following terms of the series, can never be more than a small part of the whole sector.

*Cor. 3.* If R stand for 57,2957795, &c. degrees (or the number of degrees contain'd in an angle subtended by an arch of the same length with the radius of the circle) and M be the number of degrees in an angle, which is to 4 right angles, the area N S P to the area of the whole circle; then will M

$$= \frac{np}{t} \times \frac{Ry}{t} + \frac{n^3 t - n \cdot nn - 1}{6t} \cdot p \times \frac{Ry^3}{t^3} \text{ nearly.}$$

For,  $\frac{M}{R} \times \frac{t^2}{2}$  will appear by the construction to be equal to the sector N S P.

*Case 2.* If S P be greater than C P, then take an area H equal to the sum of the terms in the following series.

Series

$$\frac{y^2}{1} + \frac{t - n + \overbrace{1}^2 \times f}{\overbrace{3}^3} \times \frac{y^3}{t^2} + \frac{9 t + n + \overbrace{3}^2 \times f}{\overbrace{5}^5} \times \frac{y^5}{t^4} + \dots$$

$$+ \frac{x^2 s t - n + \overbrace{5}^2 \times f}{\overbrace{7}^7} \times \frac{y^7}{t^6} + \dots \text{ &c. and the area } \frac{1}{2} n \times$$

H will be the sector, as before.

For, the point S being on the contrary side of the centre to what it was before, it will easily appear, that the change, of  $+f$  into  $-f$  must reduce one case to the other, without any other proof.

*Cor.* Hence if the number  $n$  be taken equal to  $\frac{\sqrt{t+f}}{f}$ ,

or in this case  $\frac{\sqrt{P}}{f}$ , then the series for the sector will want the second term, as in the former it wanted the third.

*Definition.* The angle, called by *Kepler* the *anomalia eccentrici*, is a fictitious angle in the elliptic orbit of a planet, being analogous to the area described by a line from the centre of the orbit, and revolving with the planet from the line of apsides; in like manner as the mean anomaly is a fictitious angle, analogous to the area, described by a line from the focus.

Otherwise, if C be the centre, S the focus of an elliptic orbit, described on the transverse axis A P, and the area N S P in the circle be taken in proportion to the whole, as the area described in the ellipsis about the focus, to the whole; then is the arch of the circle P N, or the angle N C P, that which *Kepler* calls the *anomalia eccentrici*.

This angle may be measured either from the aphelion, or perihelion; in the following proposition it is supposed to be taken from the perihelion.

*Prop. 2.* The mean anomaly of a comet or planet, revolving in a given elliptic orbit being given, to find the *anomalia eccentrici*.

The solution of this problem requires two different rules, the first and principal one serves to make a beginning for a farther approximation, and the other is for the progression in approximating nearer and nearer *ad libitum*.

I. The rule for the first assumption. Let  $t$ ,  $f$ ,  $p$ , stand before, for the semi-transverse axis of the ellipsis, the semi-distance of the foci, and the perihelion distance; then taking the number  $n$  equal to  $\sqrt{5} + \sqrt{59 + 9p}$ ; let  $T$  stand for  $\frac{2t}{f+2p}$

$nnt - nn = 1.p$ ; and  $P$  for  $nn t - nn = 1.p$ . (or  $\frac{P}{t}$ )

which constant number, being once computed for the given orbit, will serve to find the angle required nearly by the following rule.

Let  $M$  be the number of degrees in the angle of mean anomaly to the given time, reckon'd from or to the perihelion; and supposing  $R$ , as before, to stand for 57, 2957, &c.

degrees; take the number  $N = \sqrt[3]{\frac{T}{nR}} M$ , and let  $A$  be the angle whose sine is

$$\frac{N^3}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}} + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4} + \frac{N^6}{P^3}}} + \frac{N^3}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}} - \sqrt{\frac{1}{4} + \frac{N^6}{P^3}}}$$

Then the multiple angle  $n \times A$  will be nearly equal to the anomalia eccentrici.

The truth of which will appear from the resolution of the cubic equation in the last corollary to the preceding proposition.

*Cor. 1.* If the quadruple of the quantity  $\frac{P^3}{N^6}$  be many times greater, or many times less than unity; or which amounts to the same thing, if the mean anomaly  $M$  be many times less, or many times greater, than the angle denoted by the given quantity  $\frac{2np}{3t} R\sqrt{P}$  (the one or the other of which two cases most frequently happens in orbits of very large eccentricity) then the theorem will be reduced to a simpler form near enough for use.

*Case 1.* If  $M$  be many times less than  $\frac{2np}{3t} R\sqrt{P}$  then the angle  $A$  may be taken for that whose sine is  $\frac{t \times M}{np \times R}$ .

*Case 2.* If  $M$  be many times greater than  $\frac{2np}{3t} R\sqrt{P}$  then

then let  $A$  be the angle whose sine is  $N - \frac{P}{N}$ , and the multiple angle  $n \times A$ , according to its case, will be nearly equal to the angle required.

*Cor. 2.* In orbits of very large eccentricity, the perihelian distance  $p$  is many times less than the semi-distance of the

foci  $f$ , and the number  $n = \sqrt{5 + \sqrt{25 + 9\frac{p}{f}}}$  is always nearly equal to  $\sqrt{10}$ , or the integer 3, either of which may be used for it without any material error in the orbits of comets.

### III. The Rule for a farther correction *ad libitum*.

Let  $M$  be the given mean anomaly,  $t$  the semi-transverse axis as before ; and let  $B$  be equal to, or nearly equal to the multiple angle  $n \times A$  before found, then if  $\mu$  be the mean anomaly, and  $x$  the planet's distance from the sun, computed

to the *anomalia eccentrici*  $B$  ; the angle  $B$  taken equal to  $B + \frac{t}{x} \times M - \mu$  will approach nearer to the true value of the angle sought ; and by repeating the same operation, the approximation may be carried on nearer and nearer *ad libitum*.

This last rule being obvious, the explication of it may be omitted.

*Scholium.* In this solution, where the motion is reckon'd from the perihelion, the rule is universal, and under no limitation : But had the motion been taken from the aphelion, the problem must have been divided into two cases ; one is, when the eccentricity is less than  $\frac{9}{15}$  ; the other is when it is not less, but is either equal to, or more than in that ratio.

If the eccentricity be not less than  $\frac{9}{15}$ , then the same rule will hold as before, only putting the aphelian distance, suppose  $a$ , instead of the perihelian distance  $p$ , and substituting  $-f$  for  $+f$  in the rule for the number  $n$ .

If the eccentricity be less than  $\frac{9}{15}$ , then take the number  $n$  equal to  $\sqrt{\frac{a}{f}}$  and  $\frac{t}{na} \times \frac{M}{R}$  will be nearly equal to the sine of the sub-multiple part of the *anomalia eccentrici*, denominated by the number  $n$ , as before.

It is needless to observe, that the like rules would obtain in hyperbolic orbits, *mutatis mutandis*. But that which perhaps

sort

may not appear unworthy of being remark'd, concerning this sort of solution from the cubic root, is, that tho' the rule be altogether impossible upon a total change of the figure of the orbit either into a circle, or into a parabola; yet it will operate so much better, and stand in need of less correction, according as the figure advances nearer in its change towards either of these two forms.

That the use of the method may the better appear, Mr. Machin adds a few examples; two for the orbits of planets, one the most and the other the least eccentric; but which are more to shew the extent of the rule, than to recommend the use of it in such cases: For, there are many other much better and more expeditious methods in orbits of small eccentricity: The other two examples are adapted to the orbits of two comets, whose periods have been already discover'd by Dr. Halley; the one is to shew the use of one of the rules in the first corollary, and the other is to explain the use of the other rule.

*Ex. 1. For the orbit of Mercury.*

If an unit be put for the semi-transverse axis,  $\tau$ , the eccentricity  $o, 20589$  will become  $f$ , and the perihelian distance  $p$  will be  $o, 79411$ ; wherefore by means of the number  $R$ , given as before, the constant numbers for this orbit will appear to be

$$n = 3, 56755, T = 0, 5857271, P = \frac{p}{\tau} T = 0, 4651319; \text{ and}$$

$$\text{hence } \frac{3T}{n \times R} = 0, 0085965.$$

Suppose  $M$  the mean anomaly from the perihelion to be  $120^\circ$ , to which it is requir'd to find the *anomalia eccentrici*.

Here since the mean anomaly  $M$  is not many times more than the limiting angle  $\frac{2np}{3\tau} R \sqrt{P}$  (which in this orbit is about  $74$  degrees) recourse must be had to the general rule in the proposition.

The number  $N$  then, which is  $\sqrt[3]{\frac{3T}{nR}} M$  will be  $= 1, 0104195$ , which found gives

$$N \sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2}} + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}} + \frac{p^{\frac{3}{2}}}{N^6} = 1, 0389090, \text{ and also}$$

$$N \sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2}} - \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}} + \frac{p^{\frac{3}{2}}}{N^6} = 0, 4477126: \text{ Wherefore the sum of both (under their proper signs) viz. } 0, 5911964 \text{ will be the fine, whose}$$

whose arch  $36^\circ, 24195$  is the angle A, the multiple whereof  $n \times A = 129^\circ, 295503$  will be the angle to be first assumed for the *anomalia eccentrici*.

For a farther correction; this angle, now call'd B, whose sine is (suppose)  $y$ , and its cosine  $z$ , gives, by a known rule,  $r + \frac{f}{t} z = 1, 1304$  for  $x$  the planet's distance from the sun; and by another known rule  $B - \frac{fR}{rt} y = 120^\circ, 16568$  for  $\mu$  the mean anomaly to the *anomalia eccentrici*; B: Wherefore, the correct angle  $B = B \times \frac{t}{x} \times \overline{M - \mu}$  will be  $129^\circ, 14846 = 129^\circ. 8' .54''$ , 5, erring, as will appear from a farther correction, about tenth of a second.

This angle, being thus determined, will, by the common methods, give  $137^\circ 48' 33''$  and  $\frac{1}{3}$  for the true anomaly or angle at the sun; the sine of the true anomaly being in proportion to the sine of the *anomalia eccentrici*, as the semi-conjugate axis to the planet's distance from the sun. So that the equation of the centre in this example is  $17^\circ 48' 33''$  and  $\frac{1}{3}$ .

#### Ex. 2. for the orbit of Venus.

Supposing, as before, the mean distance  $r$  to be unity, and the eccentricity  $f$  to be 0, 0069855; the constant numbers for this orbit will be  $p=0, 9930115$ ,  $n=6, 4116$ ,  $T=1, 562134$ ,  $P=0, 1551217$ ,  $\frac{3T}{nR} = 0, 0127571$ , and the limiting angle

$\frac{2np}{3t} R \sqrt{P}$  will appear to be about 303 degrees.

Let M be  $120^\circ$ , as in the former example. Then, since the mean anomaly is, in this case, not many times less than the limiting angle, the general rule must be used as before; according to which the number N will appear to be 1, 152585, the sine of A will be 0. 3217917, the angle A 18, 077132, and the multiple  $n \times A$  or angle B, for the first assumption of the *anomalia eccentrici* will be  $120^\circ, 35416$ .

This angle B will give, by the method before explained, the angle  $B = 120^\circ, 34555$ , or  $120^\circ 21' 44''$  fere, for the *anomalia eccentrici* correct; the error of which will, upon examination, appear to be but a small part of a second.

In this example the true anomaly is  $120^\circ 41' 25'', 1$ ; and consequently, the equation of the centre no more than  $41' 25'', 1$ .

Ex.

*Ex. 3.* For the orbit of the comet of 1682.

To know the mean anomaly of this comet to any given time, it is to be premised, that it was at the perihelion *An. 1682*, on the 4th of *September* at 21 ho. 22 min. equated time to the meridian of *Greenwich*, and performs its revolution round the sun, as Dr. *Halley* has discover'd, in 75 years and a half.

The perihelian distance  $p$  is, according to his determination, 0, 0326085 parts of the mean distance  $r$ : So that the constant numbers for the orbit will be  $n = 3$ ,  $1676061$ ,  $T = 0, 2054272$

$P = 0, 00669867$ , and the limiting angle  $\frac{2\pi p}{3r} R \sqrt{P}$  will be about 19 minutes or  $\frac{1}{3}$  of a degree.

In the orbits of comets, the rule for the first assumption of the *anomalia eccentrici* is generally sufficient without correction.

Thus, suppose the mean anomaly  $M$  to be  $0, 072706$  (as it was at the time of an observation made at *Greenwich* on the 30th of *August*, 1682, at 7<sup>h</sup> 42' equat. time) then the general rule (which must be here us'd, since the angle of mean anomaly is not above four or five times less than the limiting angle) will give  $n \times A$  or  $B = 2^\circ 12' 48''$ , 7, erring about  $\frac{1}{12}$  of a second from the true *anomalia eccentrici*.

But in these orbits the rules in the first corollary to the second proposition most frequently take place, especially the last; and the calculation may also be farther abbreviated, by putting the square root of 10, or the integer 3, for the number  $n$ .

Suppose the mean anomaly to be  $0^\circ, 006522$ , or  $23^\circ, 4792$ , here, since  $M$  is 50 times less than the limiting angle, the rule in the first case of the first corollary may be us'd; that is, to take the sine of the angle  $A = \frac{r \times M}{n p \times R}$ .

Wherefore, if the number 3 be put for  $n$ , the sine of  $A$ , which is  $\frac{t M}{3 p R}$  will be  $= 0, 00116367$ ; and consequently, the angle  $A$  will be  $4' 0''$ , 081; and the multiple angle  $n \times A$  to be assumed for the *anomalia eccentrici* will be  $12'. 0'' 033$ ; the error of which will be found to be about  $\frac{1}{30}$  of a second.

*Ex. 4.* For the orbit of the great comet *An. 1680*.

This comet, according to Dr. *Halley*, performs its period in 575 years; and was in its perihelion on the 7th of *December* 1680, at 23<sup>h</sup> 9' equat. time at *London*, the perihelian distance  $p$  is 0, 000089301, in parts of the mean distance  $r$ : Wherefore, supposing the number  $n$  to be  $\sqrt{10}$ , the constant numbers for the orbit will be  $T = 0, 2000161$ ,  $P = 0, 000047862$ , and the limiting

limiting angle  $\frac{2 \pi p R r P}{3 t}$  will be about  $\frac{1}{2}$  of a second.

Suppose the mean anomaly to be  $3^\circ 31''$ , 4478, or  $0^\circ 05873541$  (as it was at the time of the first observation of it in *Saxony*, Nov. 3. at  $16^h 47'$  equat. time at *London*) here since the mean anomaly is many times greater than  $\frac{1}{6}$  of a second, the rule in the second case of the first corollary may be used; that is, by taking the sine of  $A = N - \frac{P}{N}$ .

But the number  $N$  or  $\sqrt{\frac{3 T}{n R}}$  M is = 0, 05794134, and  $\frac{P}{N}$  will be equal 0, 0030827; wherefore ( $N - \frac{P}{N} = 0, 05763307$

will be the sine, whose arch  $3^\circ 30397$  is the angle A; and the multiple angle  $n \times A = 10^\circ 26' 53''$ , 05 will be the angle to be first assumed for the *anomalia eccentrici*; the error of which will be found to be less than a second.

The true anomaly, computed from this angle, according to the rule in the example for *Mercury*, will appear to be  $171^\circ 38' 24''$  from the perihelion.

By these examples it appears, that the solution is universal in all respects: For, the two first, compared with the two last, serve to shew that it is not confined to any particular parts of the orbit, but extends to all degrees of mean anomaly: And by comparing the second with the last, it sufficiently appears to be universal with respect to the several degrees of eccentricity; since in one, the equation of the centre for the reduction of the mean to the true motion is not so much as the  $\frac{1}{170}$  part of the whole; whereas in the other it amounts to almost 3000 times as much as the mean motion itself.

Upon reviewing the reflections on the quadrature of the circle, Mr. *Machin* thinks it necessary, in order to prevent any mistake, that may arise from the different opinions, that obtain about the nature of mathematical quantity, to explain himself a little upon that head; as also to add a few words to shew, how the method of quadrature by limiting polygons takes place in other figures as well as the circle.

Mr. *Machin* takes then a mathematical quantity, and that for which any symbol is put, to be nothing other than number, with regard to some measure, which is considered as one: For, we cannot know precisely and determinately, that is, mathemati-

cally, how much any thing is, but by means of number. The notion of continued quantity, without regard to any measure, indistinct and confused; and tho' some species of such quantity considered physically, may be described by motion, as lines by points, and surfaces by lines, and so on; yet the magnitudes mathematical quantities are not made by that motion, but by numbering according to a measure.

Accordingly, all the several notations, that are found necessary to express the formations of quantities, do refer to some office or property of number or measure; but none can be interpreted to signify continued quantity as such.

Thus some notations are found requisite to express number in its ordinal capacity, or the *numerus numerans*, as when one follows or precedes another, in the first, second, or third, place

from that, upon which it depends; as the quantities  $\dot{x}, \ddot{x}, \ddot{\ddot{x}}, \ddot{\ddot{\ddot{x}}}, \ddot{\ddot{\ddot{\ddot{x}}}}$  referring to the principal one  $x$ .

So, in many cases, a notation is found necessary to be given to a measure as a measure; as for instance, Sir Isaac Newton's symbol for a fluxion  $\dot{x}$ : For, this stands for a measure of some kind, and accordingly he usually puts an unit for it, if it be the principal one upon which the rest depend.

So some notations are expressly to shew a number in the form of its composition, as the index to the geometrical power  $x^n$ , denoting the number of equal factors, which go to the composition of it, or what is analogous to such.

But that there is no symbol or notation but what refers to discrete quantity, is manifest from the operations, which are all arithmetical.

And hence it is, there are so many species of mathematical quantity, as there are forms of composite numbers, or ways in the composition of them; among which there are two more eminent for their simplicity and univeriality than the rest: One is the geometrical power, formed from a constant root; and the other, tho' well known, yet wanting a name, as well as a notation, may be call'd the arithmetical power, or the power of a root uniformly increasing or diminishing, and is that whose notation is design'd above, after *Scholium Lemma 2*: The one is only for the form of the quantity itself, the other is for the constitution of it from its elements.

Now from the properties of either of these it would be easy to shew, how the quadratures of simple figures are deducible from the area's of their limiting polygons. Mr. Machin just points out the method from the arithmetical power, as being the shortest and readiest at hand.

Let

Let  $z, z, z, \text{ &c.}$  or  $z, z, z, \text{ &c.}$  be quantities in arithmetical progression, diminishing or increasing by the common difference  $z$ ;

and let (as has been before explain'd)  $\frac{z}{z} (m$  signify the arithmetical power of  $z$ , denominated by the potential index  $m$ , namely

$z \times z \times z, \text{ &c.}$  whose first root is  $z$  and last  $z - m - 1 \times z$ , which being supposed, the element of the arithmetical power

$$\frac{z}{z} (m - 1)$$

will be  $m z \times z$ , that is, the product made from the multiplication of the two indices, and the next inferior power of the next root in order: For, the first arithmetical power

$$\frac{z}{z} (m - 1)$$

$$\frac{z}{z} (m - 1)$$

$z$  is  $= z \cdot z$ , and the next  $z = z \times z - mz$ ;

wherefore the difference will be as is explain'd.

And consequently, since the sum of these elements or differences, taken in order from the first to the last, do make up the quantity, according to its *termini*; hence, if  $z$  be the absciss

of a curvilinear figure, whose ordinate  $y$  is equal to  $m z$ , a demonstration might easily be made, that the form of the quantity for the area will be  $z^m$ ; that is, the same multiple of the next superior power of  $z$ , divided by the index of that power.

For, since the arithmetical powers do both unite and become the same with the geometrical power, when the differential index  $z$  is supposed to be nothing; the magnitude of the geometrical figure will be implied from the magnitudes of the two polygons, made up of rectangles, one from the increasing, the other from the diminishing arithmetical power; tho' it be true, that the elements of the polygons cannot be summ'd up, when the measure of the absciss  $z$ , is supposed to be nothing.

In like manner, in any other case where  $z$  and  $z'$  are two abscisses whose difference as a measure is  $z$ , and  $y, y'$  the two ordinates; the magnitude of the figure will be implied by the magnitudes of the two polygons, which are made from the sum

of the inscribing and circumscribing elements  $zy$  and  $z'y$ ;

D d d z

tho'

tho' the figure itself is not to be resolved into any such primogenial rectangular elements.

And thus, Mr. *Machin* thinks, that the symbol  $x$ , consider'd as a component part of the rectangle  $xy$ , may bear a plain interpretation; viz. that it is the measure, according to which the quantity  $x$  is measur'd; nor can he see that any other interpretation need be put upon a symbol, which, like a measure, is used only to make other things known, but is of itself nothing but a mark.

And what is said of the elements of the first resolution, easily applicable to those of a second or third, and so on: The last may always be consider'd as the measure of the former, and is indivisible; tho' in respect of the following, it be taken of the part, according to which the measure was made, and therefore be divisible.

*A Description of a new invented Water-bellows; by M. Triewald. Phil. Trans. N° 448. p. 231.*

THE water-bellows M. *Triewald* here proposes are, as to their effect, noways inferior to the wooden bellows, made use of in *Sweden* at all their iron forges, and furnaces, &c. by far more advantageous in all other smelting works, that require large bellows.

Whoever has seen the invention, described in the *Philosophical Transactions*, and made use of at *Tivoli* in *Italy*, and several other places, and call'd *soffi d'acqua*; and attentively considers the following description, will be convinced, that the new invention of water-bellows is built on the very same foundation, to which leather'n and wooden bellows owe their use and original, and in several cases prove of more signal service.

The water-bellows A and A (as represented in the Fifth Plate XII.) are made of wood; not unlike the shape of dining bells, in the form of a truncated cone, and consequently wider below than at top, where they are furnish'd with close heads B and B, but at the lower ends E and E quite open. At the heads B and B are two valves V and V; which open internally, and are made like the claps of other bellows, with their hinges, and the valves themselves cover'd with hatiers felt, and shut by an easy steel spring, till the air from above opens the same, which happens only when these bellows receive their motion upwards; but are shut by means of the pressure of the air within, when

they sink down into the water. On the very same heads are two pliable leathern tubes R and R, fixt one at the top of each water-bellows, which tubes are made and prepared in the same manner as those used in water-engines for extinguishing fire: These leathern tubes or pipes reach from the bellows to wooden tubes, T, T, which carry the wind into the iron furnace M, or any other place, according to pleasure.

These bellows are likewise provided with iron chains k, K, which are fastened to two sweeps, S, S, by which means they hang perpendicular from the beam of the balance, and at the same distance from the centre of its motion C.

On the balance are two sloping gutters, F, F, into which the water alternately runs from the gutter G, and so gives motion to the whole work; So that these last mentioned gutters do the same service as an over-shot, or any other water-wheel, and cost a great deal less, but give as even and regular a motion, as any pendulum for measuring of time: For, as soon as so much water runs into either of the afore-mentioned inclined planes of the gutters, so that the momentum of the water exceeds the friction near the centre of motion C, the gutter immediately moves down, with a velocity increasing, till the balance meets with the resistance of the wooden springs H and H, and at the same time raises the opposite water-bellows, or that bellows which is fixt under the opposite gutter. In the same moment again, as the said gutter begins its motion, being come down on the spring, delivers all the water it has receiv'd; and the very same time the water begins to run into the opposite gutter, which receives its load of water almost as soon as the former is emptied: So that one of the gutters does its effect, as soon as the other has done its effect; and this alternately one after another.

These sloping gutters on the balance do, therefore, all the service and effect, which a water-wheel does in working the ordinary bellows, and that by means of the power which the water applies to the wheel for giving the common bellows their motion; after the same manner does the water here enable the sloping gutters to do the same work.

But as to the manner and the means whereby these water-bellows are fit to blow the fire, and perform the same as leathern and wooden ones, there is no other reason but the very self-same wherein the effect of the ordinary bellows consists: For, an ordinary pair of bellows blow for no other reason, but that

the

the air which enters the bellows, and which they contain when rais'd, is again compress'd or forced into a narrower space when the bellows close: Now since the air, like all other fluids moves to that place where it meets with the least resistance, it must consequently go thro' the opening left for it, with a velocity proportioned to the force by which the air is compris'd and must necessarily blow stronger or weaker, in proportion to the velocity by which the top and bottom of the bellows meet the blast will also last in proportion to the quantity of air, that was drawn into the bellows thro' the valve or wind clap.

This happens in the same manner in water-bellows: For, the air which they contain cannot force itself down through the water more than thro' a well secured deal board with pitch: when the bellows are lower'd down into the water, the air which they contain must necessarily be compress'd by the water which rises alternately into the bellows A and A: So that the air must recede and go thro' the leather tubes R, R, where the air meets with the least resistance.

From all which it undoubtedly follows, that the larger, that is to say, the more air these water-bellows are made to contain, and the greater the velocity is by which they are made to descend into the water, so much the greater is their effect; and that the effect, which they are able to perform, must be equal to that of leather or wooden bellows of the same capacity, in containing an equal quantity of air.

As to the advantages which this new invention has in regard to these hitherto made use of, it is a thing known, that the power which works the common bellows, made use of at iron furnaces, must be sufficient not only to compress the bellows, but at the same time to force down the leaver with its weight or counterpoise; which leaver serves again to raise the bellows, when the cog or button on the axle-tree of the water-wheel slides off from the bellows-tree: So that the power must be sufficient at once to produce two different effects; whereas these new water-bellows require scarce any greater power than what is necessary to overcome the friction near the centre of motion, or the axis C: For, in this invention of M. Triewald's an advantage is obtain'd, which very rarely happens in mechanics, viz. that the weight to be mov'd is, as here, on the balance in *æquilibrio*; since the bellows A and A cannot be otherwise conceiv'd than as two equal, tho' heavy, weights in a pair of scales, which balance each other, tho' their weight be ever so great: So that if each

of these bellows should weigh a ton, they must still equiponde-rate; which is so much the easier attain'd to, since it requires very little art to make them both of a weight, and order them at equal distances from the centre of motion.

It is, consequently, known how small a power is required to set the scales of a balance with equal weights in motion; notwithstanding the weight may be as great as possible: All which may with good reason be applied to these water-bellows.

And tho' it cannot be denied, but that the bellows which sinks down into the water-hole or sump N, becomes so much lighter, as it loses of its weight in water, by which means the water-bellows to be rais'd becomes so much heavier, as the former loses of its weight by being let down into the water; yet this is compensated, if we consider that the water which falls down along the sloping gutter, acquires a power of a falling body; which power increasing in the same proportion as the bellows to be rais'd grows heavier, this power suits admirably well the weight to be rais'd: For, the bellows that sinks down into the sump N, does not at once lose its weight in the water, but gradually as it comes deeper into the same: And in the same manner the ascending bellows does not grow at once heavier than the other, but gradually, growing heaviest just when the lowermost edge gets even with the surface of the water; and that happens at the same instant of time when the power of the water in the sloping gutter is at the highest pitch, or has receiv'd its greatest momentum.

This shews very plainly, that the power requir'd to work these water-bellows is far less; and consequently, less water will be consumed in working these bellows than those commonly used: And again, that an iron furnace, which for want of water to work the common bellows, cannot be kept at work longer than six weeks, tho' it be provided with all necessities, may by means of such water-bellows as here described, be kept at work at least as long again.

It is furthermore a thing known to miners, of what prodigious loss and inconveniency it is, when the hearth or mouth of an iron furnace is placed low, in a wet and damp place, which they are oftentimes obliged to do, in regard to the axle tree of the water wheel, which works the bellows; which reason such furnaces as stand in the like moist places

places give daily considerably less iron than others which are better situated.

There is likewise no small difficulty to find a fit situation for such iron furnaces where iron guns are cast, and require deep pits under the mouth of the furnace: But by means of this new invention of bellows, one may be at liberty to place the mouth of the furnace as high as one pleases, seeing it is very easy to guide the blast by means of wooden or leaden tubes, as far as necessary, and in a proper direction into the furnace; which advantage cannot so easily be obtain'd by those bellows in common use,

Further, this may be accounted as no small advantage which these bellows afford, in being of so very easy a structure, that any carpenter at first sight is able not only to construct the whole engine, but easily repair every part of the same; requiring at the same time the least repairs of any that can be used: And if the bellows should be cast iron they would last for several ages; and when cast strong, they would not require any weight to sink readily in the water. One might cause them to be cover'd with lead, or make them of thin copper with a thick leaden hoop at top, to make them sink. As to their shape, it is not absolutely necessary that they should be of the same with that represented by the Fig. For, in case one would not bestow iron hoops on the bellows, they might be made square, in a triangle, or another shape, provided they be as wide again at bottom as at top: And if they be made of wood, it will be necessary to provide an edge round the tops, for containing as much stones or leaden weights, as will be found necessary to make them sink readily, when they are lower'd down into the water.

Lastly, if we will consider the charge of those bellows made use of at iron furnaces, as to the bellows themselves the water-wheel and its axle-tree, &c. and compare the same with the cost of these, we shall easily find a vast difference, not to mention the vast charges of keeping the common bellows in repair.

In fine, the blast of these bellows is governed and moderated in the same manner as the common ones, viz. letting more or less water into the sloping gutters, and taking out and letting in plugs for that purpose, placed holes near the top of the water bellows.

*In Abstract of Meteorological Observations for six Years, made at Padua; by S. Poleni. Phil. Trans. N°. 448. p. 239.*  
Translated from the Latin.

THE following is an abstract of six years meteorological observations, which were made according to the rules of Dr. Jurin's invitation; and consequently corresponding with those published in *Phil. Trans.* N° 421. The instruments & Poleni made use of were the same, and posited in the same places, and applied in the same manner, as mentioned in that transaction. The observations are, as follows:

TABLE A.

	1731 In. Dec.	1732 In. Dec.	1733 In. Dec.	1734 In. Dec.	1735 In. Dec.	1726 In. Dec.
January	2 546	2 129	1 855	1 034	4 052	6 541
February	3 093	1 959	0 405	1 735	2 420	2 981
March	0 976	2 765	5 642	1 558	5 162	2 721
April	3 434	5 432	3 816	1 706	1 452	1 227
May	0 602	1 864	5 330	4 372	2 681	4 444
June	4 253	2 872	2 712	4 555	3 865	2 777
July	3 402	1 585	3 874	7 015	4 992	3 064
August	7 372	3 112	3 679	3 082	0 720	1 844
September	2 216	0 089	0 589	2 899	1 287	2 479
October	4 354	9 164	2 788	4 391	1 878	0 529
November	1 653	0 957	0 382	1 307	0 542	1 454
December	0 306	3 528	1 065	4 909	0 634	0 572
Sum of the whole year.	34 207	35 456	32 137	38 563	29 685	30 633

And first, the quantities of rain and snow water, collected for these six years, are exhibited in Table A: And if all the months of *January*, *February*, &c. of the said years, be added together, it will be found that the least quantity of water, namely 6 inches 295 dec. fell in the months of *November*; on the contrary, that the greatest quantity, *viz.* 23 inches 932 dec. fell in the months of *July*. Whereas in the six preceding years, the least quantity fell in the months of *February*; and the greatest in the months of *October*, and the difference between the greatest and least quantity was 22 inches 196 dec. but in this 17 inches 637 dec.

It likewise appears from the table, that the year 1735 was drier than any of the rest, the sum for that whole year being

29 inc. 685 dec. and the year 1734 wetter, its sum being 38 inches 563 dec. In the six preceeding years the difference between the driest and wettest years was 27 inches 505 dec. in the six years of this table 8 inches 878 dec.

TABLE B.

	Winter. In. Dec.	Spring. In. Dec.	Summer. In. Dec.	Autumn In. Dec.
1731	5 759	6 647	13 598	8 17
1732	4 522	10 300	7 226	10 186
1733	6 321	15 758	8 762	3 759
1734	4 74	8 14	14 34	10 125
1735	10 450	10 848	7 805	2 337
1736	11 945	8 54	6 361	4 588
Sum.	43	71 59	621 57	796 40 12

In this table B it easily appears, that the quantity of water gather'd in summer and autumn for three years was greater than that gather'd in winter and spring; but that for three years it was less: Whereas in the six preceeding years the quantity in summer and autumn was always greater; and in these six years the seasons were to be ranged according to the increase of the sums of water gather'd in the following order, winter, spring, summer, autumn: In the six years of Table B they should be ranged thus, autumn, winter, summer, spring.

In these last six years, the sum of the quantity of water collected in summer and spring exceeds that collected in winter and autumn. And in both the six years, summer is refer'd to the two seasons of the greatest, and winter to the two seasons of the least quantity.

TABLE

TABLE C.

The decrease of the barometer from the noon of the preceeding day to that on which it rain'd

Number of days in which it rained,

140

47

15

18

27

28

33

62

Sum 380

The wind what at the noon of the days it rain'd.

N

N E

E

S E

S

S W

W

N W

The increase of the barometer from the noon of the preceeding day to that in which it rain'd.

Number of days in which it rain'd

80

29

7

4

14

17

24

31

Sum 206

N

N E

E

S E

S

S W

W

N W

As in the corresponding table for the former six years; so in this, there was no greater difference between the numbers of increase and decrease of the height of the barometer in rainy days, than what is between the numbers 370 and 206; which is almost the same with that for the former six years, namely, 378 and 211.

It is likewise worth remarking, that in all the former six years, there were 589 rainy days; and in the latter 576, there being only the small difference of 13 days between both the six years; and likewise in both the six years there was a greater quantity of rain with a northerly than with any other wind; and the least quantity with a S E and E. Moreover, the same things are to be understood in the above Table C, as in that in *Phil. Trans.* N° 421.

## MEMOIRS of the

Table D

The decrease of the barometer from the noon of the preceding day to that of the day it snow'd.

Number of days it snow'd.	The wind what at the noon of the days it snow'd.
3	N
1	NE
1	W
1	NW
Sum 6	

The increase of the barometer from the noon of the preceding day to that of the day it snow'd.

Number of days it snow'd.	The wind what at the noon of the days it snow'd.
5	N
2	NE
1	SW
1	W
Sum 9	

In the former six years it snow'd in the decrease of the barometer for more days than in the increase: But the contrary may be seen in the above table D. In the former six years there were 18 snowy days, and in the latter six, 15.

Table E

	The sum of the heights of the barometer.		The sum of the heights of the thermometer.		The mean height of the barometer for each day.		The mean height of the thermometer for each day.	
	Inches	Dec.	Inches	Dec.	Inches	Dec.	Inches	Dec.
1731	10850	65	18286	25	29	72	50	9
1732	10870	19	18361	30	29	70	50	17
1733	10867	18	18301	95	29	77	50	14
1734	10850	24	18305	78	29	73	50	15
1735	10861	21	18274	87	29	76	50	6
1736	10870	7	18338	42	29	70	50	10

In the table E may be seen the sums of the heights of the barometer and thermometer for each year; as also the mean heights corresponding to each day.

For the whole last six years, the mean height of the barometer, referable to each day of the said six years, is 29 inches 73 dec. differing only, 03 parts from that of the former six years, which was 29 inches 70 dec.

And likewise the mean height of the thermometer for each day of these last six years is found to be 50 inches 12 dec. differing only, c4 parts from that of the former six years, which was 50 inches 16 dec.

In general, the mean heights both of the barometer and thermometer for each day in each year differ but little in this table; as they likewise very much agreed in the table of the former six years.

Table P

Years	Months	Day O. S.	Hour h.	Greatest height of the barometer.	Least height of the barometer.	The height of the barom. thermo. In. De.	Wind	Weather.	
								Inc.	Dec.
1731	Feb.	6	15	30	26	28	NW	36	NW
	Jan.	29	15	30	20	47	SE	92	SE
1732	Dec.	10	15	30	28	48	S	32	N
	Mar.	11	2			49	SW	67	SW
1733	Jan.	23	15	30	48	48	NW	62	NW
	Mar.	19	15	30	28	49	N	18	N
1734	Jan.	12	15	30	34	48	N		
	Dec.	15	15	30	28	48	S	30	S
1735	Feb.	8	15	30	30	48	NW	40	NW
	Mar.	17	15	30	29	49	W	48	W
1736	Nov.	19	15	30	20	48	N	70	N
	Feb.	12	15		28	48	NW	74	NW

Years

## MEMOIRS of the

Table G

Years	Months	Day	Hour h	Height of the baro- meter.	Greatest height of the ther- mometer.	Least height of the ther- mometer.	Winds			Weather.		
							Inc.	Dec.	Inc.	Dec.	Inc.	Dec.
1731	Jun.	29	15	29	80	52	40	47	44	SE	NW	Fair.
	Jan.	27	15	29	30	52	52	52	47	NW	NW	Small rain.
1732	Jul.	20	4	29	62	52	38	47	75	W	NW	Sunshine and clouds alternately.
	Dec.	6	15	29	55	52	38	47	85	W	W	Fair.
1733	Jun.	29	15	29	86	52	47	47	85	W	NW	Sky almost overcast.
	Dec.	13	15	30	10	52	24	47	92	NE	NE	Sky almost overcast.
1734	Jul.	1	15	29	70	52	12	47	92	SW	SW	Sunshine and clouds alternately.
	Jan.	14	15	30	12	52	18	47	92	W	W	Sunshine and foggy.
1735	Aug.	26	15	29	78	52	18	47	74	W	W	Fair.
	Dec.	27	15	30	14	52	30	47	74	NE	NE	Fair.
1736	Jul.	22	15	29	90	52	78	47	92	W	W	Sky overcast.
	Dec.	20	15	29	78	52	78	47	92	W	W	Sky overcast.

S. Poleni has added the tables F and G, in which are shewn the greatest and least heights both of the barometer and thermometer. By comparing them with the corresponding tables of Phil. Trans. N<sup>o</sup> 421 we may see, that the greatest height of the barometer, namely 30 inc. 48 dec. exceeds that in the former six years, which was 30 inc. 40 dec. But the falling of the mercury to 28 inc. 70 dec. is less than that in the former six years, which was observ'd to be 28 inc. 56 dec.

In these latter tables the greatest height of the thermometer is 52 inc. 52 dec. and in the former 52 inc. 54 dec. the difference being ,02 only: But the least height in these tables is 47 inc. 44 dec. in those 47 inc. 58 dec. The mercury, therefore, fell in the latter six years lower by 14 dec. than it had ever done in the former six years.

Table H.

Years N. S.	Inc. of a Pa. ris foot.	Lines
1731	31	11 $\frac{3}{5}$
1732	30	11 $\frac{1}{2}$
1733	32	5 $\frac{2}{3}$
1734	35	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
1735	28	7 $\frac{4}{5}$
1736	29	2 $\frac{4}{5}$
<hr/>		Sum 187
		9 $\frac{1}{3}$

By dividing into six equal parts 187 inc. 9  $\frac{1}{3}$  lin. (the numbers got from the sum of this last table H) the mean measure of water for each year is 31 inc. 3  $\frac{7}{12}$  lin. But in the former six years it was found to be 35 inc.  $\frac{1}{12}$  lin. The difference, therefore, is 3 inc. 9 lin.

And if we bring the sums of both the six years into one sum, and divide it by 12, we shall find 33 inc. 2  $\frac{1}{2}$  lin. to answer to each year: And if this quantity (as has been done in the former six years) be compar'd with the mean quantity of water, that falls at Paris, namely 19 inc. or 18 inc. 8 lin. it will still plainly appear, that a much greater quantity of water falls at Padua, than at Paris.

And these six years do likewise furnish with an observation, by which it appears, that sometimes in 24 hours there falls a much greater quantity of water at Padua than ever does at

Paris

*Paris* in the same time. From the noon of the 27th of Oct. 1732, O. S. the wind at north, till the noon of the following day, there fell 2 inc. and 9 lin. of rain nearly. Moreover, the excess of this quantity above that (within the time already specified) which falls at *Paris* may be easily known by comparing the *Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences*, as S. *Poleni* has hinted elsewhere.

The greatest height of the barometer on Jan. 23, 1733, observ'd these last six years, and reduced to *Paris* measure, is 28 inc. 6  $\frac{2}{5}$  lin. and the least height answering to the 29th of Jan. 1731 is 26 inc. 10  $\frac{2}{5}$  lin. The difference between the greatest and least height, is found to be 1 inc. 8 lin.

And since the difference (as has been mention'd in *Phil. Trans.* N° 421) between the greatest and least height of the barometer at *Paris* is found to be 1 inc. 11  $\frac{5}{8}$  lin. it exceed that found by S. *Poleni* at *Padua* by 3  $\frac{5}{8}$  lin. Wherefore, what has been observ'd of these differences in the said *Transaction* is confirmed by these later observations.

In fine, S. *Poleni* adds some observations on the declination of the magnetic needle. In April, 1733 he found by repeated observations that the declination was 13 degrees and  $\frac{1}{2}$  westwards. On the last days of the year 1736 he found it 13 degrees and 45 sexagesimals. If, therefore, what has been already said of the declination of the needle in *Phil. Trans.* N° 421, be compar'd with this, it will plainly appear, that the declination for the 3 first of these six years increas'd more than it did for the three last.

*The imperfections of the common Barometers, and the improvement made therein; by Mr. Charles Orme; together with some Remarks; by Mr. Henry Beighton.* Phil. Trans. N° 448. p. 248.

**A**S there is nothing more wanting than a theory of the weather on mechanical principles; there does not seem any thing in all philosophy of more immediate concern than the state of the weather.

In order to which a complete history of the weather is necessary, to deduce from thence such rules, and observations, may in some measure form such a theory: And it may be said, that could we in any tolerable degree foretell but by some small space of time, the change of the weather, it would be admirable use to us in those affairs on which the chief part our welfare and subsistence depends.

It was from such considerations, that upwards of 20 years before Mr. *Orme* began, and had continu'd to keep a diary of the weather, (the six last years of which he here subjoins) and tho' he pretends not to form a just theory upon them, yet he is not without hopes they may have their uses, when they fall into abler hands.

From them, and the observations he made by a new improvement of the barometer (for the same number of years) he could generally foretell for a day, or perhaps two, the change of weather, or its continuance,

And tho' so many ingenious and curious persons, since the invention of *Torricelli's* barometer, have been improving and endeavouring to bring that machine to perfection; yet notwithstanding all their indefatigable care and pains, the air that is interspersed and mixed with all fluids (of which mercury is reckon'd one) has in some measure frustrated their labours, and it has remained imperfect: For, whilst there are any small quantities or particles of air remaining in the quicksilver, it will be constantly rising in hot weather, and falling in cold; which really perverts the very end and design of a barometer, which should shew the pressure of the air, and foretel when either fair weather or rain is coming: Instead of which it is in great measure a thermometer, foretelling heat instead of fair, and cold instead of rain and stormy weather: And these imperfections are more or less in all the various sorts of barometers hitherto invented.

The barometer Mr. *Orme* is going to describe is not different in form from some usually made, it being of the diagonal kind, from whence the more minute alterations are more readily discover'd: Of this form several have been made by the late ingenious Operator Mr. *Patrick*, who has, in his way, deserved well of the curious: And who, tho' he had done so much towards proving the weight of the atmosphere, by which the mercury in the tube was sustain'd, did himself not believe it, but run into the absurdity of the funicular hypothesis.

There is an inconvenience or imperfection in most, if not all, those diagonal barometers: For after some time, the various rising and falling and changes of the weather, of heat and cold, the small particles of air that have been interspers'd in the mercury, have got together in a larger mass, as they will incline by attraction, which will separate the mercury; and that quantity of air will be dilated by heat, and contracted by cold; so as to spoil the design thereof.

Besides, there is such a cohesion of the mercury to the tube (especially in the small ones) that after some time, the mercury that is not truly cleans'd from its dross, and purg'd of all its air, will in remarkable changes of the weather, neither rise nor fall : All which embarrassment is taken off, and the difficulties surmounted in Mr. *Orme's* improvements of the barometer, by the following method.

I. The quicksilver is entirely purified from its dross and earthy particles by distillation ; and when the tube is fill'd with a pound and a half, two or three pounds of mercury, and all the air got out by the usual methods in filling tubes, then the remaining air is discharged by such an intense degree of fire, as makes the mercury boil ; by which ebullition an innumerable quantity of small particles are emitted, and blow with a great velocity at the open end of the tube, till all the air be quite cleared out ; which curious as well as laborious operation is continued for the space of four hours : And when no more bubbles would rise in the tube, it remain'd whole, with its mercury of a very lively sparkling brightness, with this difference only, that the mercury, so purged of its air, did not fill the tube so high, as when first put in by about two inches, which is a plain demonstration, that in that tube, which was 49 inches long, there was intersperst in the mercury at first filling it, so much air as would fill two inches of the said tube, which was a twenty fourth part of the said space.

The whole operation Mr. *Orme* himself attended the 20th of January, 1734-5.

And farther, he can affirm, that every part of the mercury boil'd for a long time, and the tube became gradually so red hot, that with a warm knife he could make impressions in any part of it.

And that this is the surest, if not the only, method for getting out all the air, may be judged by the boiling of water, which in its ebullition emits a great quantity of air for a considerable space of time.

As to the perfection of these barometers, they exceed all others Mr. *Orme* ever observ'd in the following particulars.

1. They are sensible of the most minute changes of the air.
2. They foretel the weather by a much longer space of time than others, as for the most part 20 hours, sometimes 36 or 48 hours : Nay, before great storms, and such rains as cause great floods, for a much longer time before they happen.
3. Tho' they are so sensible of such minute changes of the air,

air, yet the most intense heat will not raise them a hair's breadth, nor the greatest cold make them fall. This shews they are perfect barometers, and not in any degree thermometers.

4. You may distinguish by them, whether (if they shew for rain) it will be little or much.

5. As by other barometers you cannot tell the weather, but by a past and a present observation; these tell you the instant you come to them, what the weather is going to be: For, by rapping the case with your finger, if it is going to be fair, or very fair weather, the mercury will rise that moment, a 10th of an inch or more; but if for foul, it will scarce make any sensible rise.

Mr. Orme has had one of the glasses by him for 10 years, and he has constantly observed its motions, which has very seldom fail'd him in foretelling any considerable change of the weather.

Mr. Beighton makes the following remarks

1. Tho' you can foretel it will rain on the morrow, it is impossible to tell where the rain will fall: For, as every shower has space, i. e. length and breadth, if it rains in that particular field, yet it may be fair in the next adjoining.

2. The barometer does only shew the pressure of the atmosphere, and inclination of the air, in and about the country where it stands, and not always in a particular spot: So that in foretelling of great rains, tho' they be over us when the glass fell; yet the wind which bloweth where it listeth, carries the clouds and rain with it.

3. On the mercury's falling it is very hard to distinguish, whether it will be rain or high winds, they equally causing the mercury to subside.

4. Of all who guess at the weather, it is observable it is not true one time in ten, nor do any two of them agree about it.

But from observations on this barometer, it will seldom fail you once in 20: So that it is above 100 to 1 preferable.

5. If from the state of the mercury, for instance, yesterday and this morning, it be pronounced, next day will be no rain, and one look at the glass no more that day, perhaps winds may arise and so alter the weight of the atmosphere, and the glass falls considerably, it will rain on the morrow, contrary to what was at first expected.

Hence it is evident from these remarks, that judgments are formed on the weather from barometers, which do not

prove so ; and this begets an opinion in the vulgar and ignorant, that there is no judgment at all to be formed from them.

If the barometer could only foretel very great and remarkable changes of the weather ; for instance, in harvest time, that a very great rain, or perhaps floods, were coming, the husbandman would stop cutting down his grain, and save some of it being spoil'd by the wet. Or on a journey, if a person knows from the indications of the barometer, that if he does not get home by such a time, or pass such rivers, the floods will be so great as not only to prevent him but endanger his life, and this must be reckoned of considerable service.

The greatest storm that has been in our days, was Jan. 8, 1734 5. On the 5th the mercury began to fall, and on the 8th it was a 10th below 28 inches ; which has not been observed in this age, nor perhaps since Torricelli's time : Thence one could plainly indicate, that it would be the greatest flood ever heard of, or the greatest storm ever felt ; the latter of which it prov'd.

Some rules and observations for foretelling the weather by the rising and falling of the mercury.

Tho' rising always presages fair, and falling, foul weather ; yet there are several difficulties and niceties in forming a judgment from them, and herein consists the chief art.

Most of the observations, made by Dr. Halley, Dr. Beaufort, Dr. Derham, Mr. Patrick, and others, are applicable to this improv'd diagonal barometer.

Mr. Beighton inserts here some few observations for the improv'd diagonal barometer, which he believes may be reckon'd rules as he has deduced them from time to time, in using Mr. Orme's glasses, and keeping a register of the weather.

1. This barometer very lately foretells thunder, seldom falling at all before it, which Mr. Patrick observes others do.

2. In serene and hot weather, when the mercury is high and rising, and there is all the possible certainty of fair weather the next day, and if these happen to fall great showers, you may conclude they have been driven upon you by thunder, tho' you have heard nothing of it.

3. When the mercury is pretty high, and has fallen to foretel rain, and it rises again before the rain comes ; it indicates that there will be but little of it.

4. If the mercury continues falling whilst it rains, it shews it will rain next day.

5. In fair weather when the mercury has continued high or rising, if it falls a little to day about noon, and towards the evening rises again, you must expect a single shower the latter part of the next day (or perhaps by noon) and then fair weather again forward.

6. When the mercury rises gradually about half a foot perpendicular height, and continues so to do for many days together; you may reasonably expect a fair season for as long a time as it was rising, unless some gales of wind intervene especially the S W b S, or thereabouts.

7. When the mercury rises or falls very fast, neither the fair or foul weather it forbodes will continue long.

8. Without knowing how the mercury has stood some little time before, a true judgment cannot be formed at all times: For suppose, I find it in a rising condition, I am apt to think it will be fair; but if it had been higher some hours before, and fell, there must happen a shower.

Why the mercury in the diagonal barometer (if it be for fair weather) on rapping the case several times, which jars and makes the tube tremble, will rise at every stroke for several strokes together, and in all sometimes a tenth of an inch or more in the perpendicular, may, Mr. Beighton presumes, be thus accounted for.

1. There is a cohesion of the mercury to the tube, which hinders its rising, and such rapping releases that.

2. But its observable, that it will rise a little at all times, even when it is in a standing or even in a falling condition: This may be accounted for thus

The mercury and atmosphere are in *equilibrio*, and rapping starts and raises the mercury a little in a boiling manner, especially its upper surface, which is observ'd to leap, or be in a swimming posture; then the pressure of the atmosphere over-balances the remainder of the mercury, and it must rise a little.

Or such violent jarring puts the mercury in a lateral and upward motion (for, downward it cannot go) which takes off its gravity, as the winds lessen the pressure of the air; therefore, it must rise a little.

But then it is also observable, that if the mercury was in a standing or falling condition; such rising as above will in a minute come to the same place again; and even when the mercury is in a rising condition it will in that space of time fall a little part of what it rose by such rapping.

This barometer has the coruscations, as they were observ'd in

Mr.



# ROYAL SOCIETY.

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1735.

Oct.	23.	.	.	.	.	.	29	55	
	24.	night	.	.	.	.	28	8	
	25.	night	.	.	.	.	28	78	
	26.	.	.	.	.	.	28	85	
	27.	.	.	.	.	.	28	26	great flood.

1735.

Aug.	19.	.	.	.	.	.	29	3	
	20.	.	.	.	.	.	29	28	
	21.	.	.	.	.	.	29	3	
	22.	.	.	.	.	.	29	2	
	23.	.	.	.	.	.	29	2	stormy, great rain.
	24.	.	.	.	.	.	29	38	floods.
Dec.	2.	.	.	.	.	.	29	32	rain.
	3.	.	.	.	.	.	29	5	fair.
	4.	.	.	.	.	.	28	8	rain,
	5.	.	.	.	.	.	28	9	rain.
	6.	.	.	.	.	.	29	5	fair.
	7.	.	.	.	.	.	29	52	great rains and floods.

## THUNDER.

The mercury seldom falls for rains that come by thunder.  
Vide Diary June 2, 1735.

## THUNDER.

When the mercury did rise.

1733.

June.	21.	—	29	16	—	29	56	
	22.	—	29	56	—	29	56	
	23.	—	29	62	—	29	65	hot.
	24.	—	29	65	—	29	57	fultry.
	25.	—	29	54	—	29	52	fultry.
	26.	—	29	51	—	29	59	great thunder.
	27.	—	29	57	—	29	56	a very violent

thunder from 10 in the morning till one in the afternoon, doing  
a deal of damage.

1735.

June.	1.	—	29	3	—	29	8	
	2.	—	29	4	—	29	55	thunder and great rains.

## THUNDER

The mercury fell before it,

1733.

1733

July 27.	—	29	44	hot, fair.
28.	—	29	37	wind, rain.
29.	—	29	09	violent thunder.
1734 Aug. 7.		29	59	fusty
8.	—	29	46	fair
9.	—	29	25	thunder
10.	—	28	87	rain, thunder

## F R O S T.

A frost, when the mercury is high, brings rain.

1731. The mercury was high all the month of March, and no rain, but what followed the frost on the 17th and 29th.

## Dry S E A S O N.

In June 1729, the mercury scarce ever above changeable.

In Aug. 1730. the mercury never lower than 29, 37.

1731. From the first to the tenth of Aug. and rain came the 16th, tho' the mercury was rising.

## F R O S T

A great frost, tho' the mercury fell, but it was attended with a great snow, which might occasion the mercury to fall.

1731

Jan. 1.	—	—	29	56	rain
2.	—	29	46	—	rain
3.	—	28	78	—	wind
4.	—	28	72	—	81 frost, great snow
5.	—	28	93	—	29 12 snow, frost

## Great R A I N S.

Tho' the mercury was rising.

1732

May 1.	—	29	28	—	29	25	wind
2.	—	28	21	—	29	25	rain all day
3.	—	29	34	—	29	09	rain
4.	—	29	09	—	29	09	rain
5.	—	29	12	—	29	34	wind
6.	—	29	44	—	29	46	fair
7.	—	29	52	—	29	39	rain and great floods

Great rain, tho' the mercury fell but little.

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1733							
May 24.	—	29	6	—	29	54	wind
25.	—	29	51	—	29	54	fair
26.	—	29	52	—	29	54	fair
27.	—	29	5	—	29	39	violent rain for more than 11 hours

## Great RAINS.

The mercury falling very much.

1734							
July 10.	—	29	65	—	29	67	fair, hot
11.	—	29	63	—	29	62	fair, hot
12.	—	29	59	—	29	4	rain
13.	—	29	29	—	29	13	great rains

— The mercury falling a great while before the rain  
came, and the rain continued as long.

1736							
May 19.	—	29	75	fair, wind	29	8	
20.	—	29	8	cold wind, fair	29	7	
21.	—	29	65	cold wind	29	52	
22.	—	29	39	wind, clouds, rain	29	52	
23.	—	29	28	cloudy, fair	29	27	
24.	—	29	32	fair	29	35	
25.	—	29	32	cloudy, wind, rain	29	24	
26.	—	29	15	rain	29	15	
27.	—	29	12	rain	29	2	
28.	—	29	28	rain	29	23	
29.	—	29	37	wind, cloudy, rain			

1735							
Feb. 22.	—	29	43				
23.	—	28	82				
24.	—	28	92	great rain.			
25.	—	28	76	5			

The mercury generally falls just after hot or sultry weather.  
Vide 16. Sept. 1731.

8. Aug. 1734.

There generally follow high winds after the aurora borealis.

1733  
Oct. 27. A large aurora borealis; and the 28th, 29th, and  
30th high winds.

Vide 23. Jan. 1734  
Vol. X. 11. G g g The

The mercury falling pretty much, and neither wind nor rain succeeded.

1733

From the 18th to the 21st it fell 41; and no wind or rain at all till the 25th.

Sultry weather generally makes the mercury fall soon after.

1734 Aug. 8. After a great storm the mercury rises very fast.

1736 Feb. 6.

1734 Aug. 26.

Before great winds the mercury falls very soon.

1736 Feb. 8.

1736 Feb. 8.

The mercury below 28 inches.

1734 Dec. 15, at 27 9

1735 Jan. 8. 27 9

In winter before frost, the mercury rises pretty fast,

1735 Dec. 12.

Before a thaw the mercury falls.

1735 Dec. 13.

17.

1736 Feb. 9.

The mercury falls suddenly before a great snow.

1731 Jan. 4.

1736 Feb. 8.

Feb. 21.

When the mercury falls for high winds, and it continues to fall when that wind is come, it is likely to be tempestuous, and continue some time, unless rain succeed.

1736 Nov. 22. -- 29 62 fair, warm 29 62

23. — 29 49 windy, warm 29 32 wind

24 29 1 high wind 28 88 28 73 stormy

Some of these collections are entirely contradictory to any settled rules; and such will happen, and others confirm them: But Mr. Beighton has collected so very few of sort, that till more are in this manner collected, it will be doubtful to form any rule from them.

*Sulphureous Vapours from a cavern in a Stone quarry at Pyrmont; by Dr. Seip. Phil. Trans. N° 448. p. 266. Translated from the Latin.*

**T**H E stone diggers frequently found dead birds in a certain deep pit of this stone quarry, 800 paces from the Pyrmont springs; and sometimes different species of birds that were newly dead.

The

The Doctor, curious to find out the cause of the birds death, at first suspected some mineral poisonous matter, like cobalt or orpiment, intermix'd with the stones, and dissolved by the rain water, of which the birds when thirsty, probably, drank.

Upon his going down into the pit, and stooping to take out the birds, he was immediately struck with such a penetrating sulphureous stench, that giddy and asthmatic, he was obliged to fly for it.

The Doctor therefore judged, that that suffocating sulphureous steam was of the same nature and origin with what is observed evening and morning in a clear sky and calm dry weather on the *Pyrmont* springs, where birds no sooner draw near than they are suffocated; and ducks, that swim in a larger spring, commonly used for bathing, can scarce hold it out a few moments, but die away immediately.

The Doctor indeed thought it would be far from adviseable, but rather a dangerous and noxious experiment, to make more such vents and spiracles for the *Pyrmont* springs, and draw out from the bowels of the mountains the sulphureo-spirituos steams that ought rather to be suppress'd and pent up for impregnating and sharpening the subterraneous waters.

For this reason, therefore, and by the Doctor's advice, the Prince of *Waldeck* discharged the workmen from digging deep into the quarry, to avoid giving vent to the mineral vapours.

However, for curiosity and experiment sake, the Doctor obtain'd of the Prince a spot of ground for a dry bath of six foot square, which he caused to be arch'd over with stone, and closed up with a door.

This small cell, order'd in this manner, can so much the less draw off the sulphureo-spirituos virtue of the waters, as it is certain that that vapour does not always perspire, but only when the weather is fair and calm, and the sky serene, with easterly and dry, northerly winds, not stormy, but gently blowing, and with fogs and vapours arising before thunder and lightning.

The steam likewise is only found morning and evening; and as the sun gradually ascends, so the vapour descends, and towards noon retires under the stones, and entirely vanishes; about evening, it by degrees returns, and after sun-set it comes out again very plentifully.

This vapour is not unlike fogs and watry exhalations; and yet it is never visible but in the rays of the sun, when the

tremulous motion of the vapour appearing like lightning and arising at very short intervals from the stones, present itself to view.

Generally the exhalation keeps in an horizontal direction and scarce ascends and exerts its force beyond 1, 1 and  $\frac{1}{2}$  and two foot : So that if one go down into the pit, and stand upright therein any time, and not bend the head below the said horizontal line, he shall not perceive the smell.

Yet at certain times, especially when the sky is calm, serene and very dry, and pregnant with thunder and lightning, the vapour ascends and exerts its suffocating force, 5, 6 foot and upwards : But this seldom happens.

The chief phenomena and experiments of this mineral exhalation, hitherto observ'd, are the following.

1. Upon going into the cavern and keeping the body and head erect, one shall perceive no smell at all ; and upon standing a few minutes in it the feet grow warm, and the steam immediately penetrates thro' the thickest shoes, and like burning nettles excites in the skin a stimulating sensation, that gradually extends to the legs and thighs, and warms the lower parts of the body in such manner, that one would think himself amidst a fire.

Upon standing still for a short while in this manner ; a very plentiful sweat is raised, first in the inferior parts, and at length over the whole body, without any trouble or anxiety.

2. Upon bending the head towards the bottom of the pit, a very strong smell is immediately perceiv'd, respiration suppressed, an acrimony felt in the eyes, which makes them water, like garlick or horse-radish ; the mouth and jaws filled with a sulphureous taste, the head affected with a vertigo and drowsiness ; so that to avoid being suffocated and falling down, one is obliged to retire.

3. All kinds of insects, as flies, butterflies, beetles, &c. as soon as they come near the vapour, immediately drop down and die.

4. Sometimes the smaller birds, if the steam be very copious are suffocated the moment they come into it ; and oftentimes for a few moments, as seiz'd with convulsions, they flutter about and leap, open their beaks, breathe short, and imitate the gestures of animals included in an exhausted receiver ; and at length they die.

If the time be exactly observ'd when the birds drop down and begin to faint, but are not quite dead, and they then be speedily

speedily brought into the open air, but especially if water be pour'd into their mouths ; they gradually awake as from a deep sleep, and revive, and soon return to themselves in such manner as to become perfectly well, and continue so ever after.

And thus the Dr. has seen a bird for ten times in one day fall into such swoons and recover again, and continue well for a long time after.

5. The larger birds, and tame fowl, as hens, ducks, geese, &c. hold it out longer in the pit, especially if they stand with their long necks above the horizontal line, or by repeated leaps get above the sphere of the vapour's activity, and so at times breathe the free air : But if the vapour be copious or if their heads be kept down to the bottom of the pit, they at length undergo the same fate with the smaller birds.

6. Quadrupeds ; as dogs, cats, sheep, &c. the larger and stronger they are, the longer they continue without being suffocated, and at length they die as birds do.

Yet they recover much more easily in the free air, especially if they be plunged into water, or a deal of it be pour'd upon them.

7. This steam immediately extinguishes fire, especially flame, and candles, whether included, or not, in transparent vessels.

It is an agreeable phenomenon if a torch made up of a bundle of straw be kindled and inclined to the bottom of the cavern ; for, it is immediately extinguish'd ; but rais'd again above the sphere of the exhalation into the free air, it directly breaks out again into flame ; and thus alternately, as often as one pleases.

8. When the vapour is copious and strong, gunpowder cannot be fired at the bottom of the pit.

Sparks, struck by a steel from pyrites or flint, may fall upon gun-powder, but not fire it.

In 1724, when first the Dr. caus'd wall in and arch over his vaporous bath, he thought with himself how he might apply to the benefit of mankind so surprising a vapour, which is much more subtle and penetrating than any of our chemical spirits.

For, he did not find it arsenical nor corrosive, as that from burning sulphur ; not inhering to, nor corroding the lungs, but only retarding and taking away one's breath and respiration : Let not so suddenly in man, as not to give him sufficient time to retire.

For experiment sake the Dr. has frequently staid in the cavern as long as he could bear the vapour, till he was almost faint and suffocated ; he has suck'd it in with his mouth wide open, and at length he has jumped into the open air : He never felt any bad effects from thence, but rather found his breast and respiration become lighter ; being troubled with a catarrh and cough, he sometimes found that catarrhous obstructions and collection of matter were by means of this fumigation dissolved and diffused.

There is not under the sun a shorter and easier method of procuring sweat : For, after staying a few moments in this vaporous pit, sweat plentifully breaks out all over the body.

Some country people, upon going sometimes into the cavern affirm that swellings of the legs, rheumatisms and arthritic pain have been very much reliev'd by this steam.

But because the exhalation sometimes exceeds its usual sphere and is then too strong and intolerable, the Dr. was afraid lest some unwary rash person should stay too long in the cavern and endanger his life ; he therefore chose rather not to make any experiments than endanger people's lives.

Barometers and thermometers, put into this vaporous pit suffer no change ; but remain in the same state as in the free air.

*The Effects of Dampier's Powder, in curing the Bite of a mad Dog ; by Mr. Fuller. Phil. Trans. N<sup>o</sup> 448. p. 272.*

**M**r. Fuller had us'd the *lycken cinereus terrestris* with black pepper upon dogs, and always with success ; and some years before, a mad dog or cat (he forgets which) had bit some children and the mother at *Batik* ; and mixing the *Lycken* according to *Dampier's* direction, they all took it, as well as a dog or two that had been bit, and none of them had any bad effects from the bite.

*Christmass, 1737.* a neighbour's servant going to search whether a dog suspected to be mad had been wormed (which dog died mad in 3 or 4 days after) was bit very much in both his hands : He went to a person who had had such success in using the *lycken cinereus terrestris* with pepper for the bite of a mad dog, as to be applied to far and near, and who assured Mr. Fuller he would venture his life, that he cured any man or animal that was brought to him within 3 or 4 days after the bite. The servant took his medicine every day ; about 10 or 11 o'clock he complain'd of a violent heat and pain in his head, which Mr. Fuller suspected was the effect of the bite, and not the me-

dicine: But after he had taken it for such a stated number of days, he grew better, and continued well ever after. He had tied his fingers with Shoemaker's ends (which are often used for a cut) and they were all very much inflamed and very sore. Mr. Fuller made him take them off, and all his plaisters, and wash his hands with salt and water, and in a fortnight's time they were quite well.

*Another Case of a Person bit by a mad Dog; by Mr. David Hartley and Mr. Francis Sandys. Phil. Trans. N° 448.*

p. 274.

A BOU T the latter end of Nov. 1732, Mr. Soame's groom was bit in the hand by a mad dog, so as to fetch blood. On the 4th day, when Mr. Sandys first saw it, the wound was heal'd; but it was open'd again by him, and kept so for some time, but at last heal'd sooner than was intended, thro' the servant's neglect.

He was bled, took a purge, after that half an ounce of *pulvis Antilyssus* (vide *Phil. Trans.* N° 237 and 443) every morning for three mornings; and was order'd to go into cold water every day for some time; but he negleCted it after the third day: Besides, Mr. Sandys order'd him to forbear all meats, and drink nothing but water. He continued in this regimen for about five weeks; then finding himself well, would confine himself no longer to it.

On the 7th of Jan. following he was seized with a sickness, vertigo, and faultering in his speech and memory; and at last his vertigo increas'd to such a degree that he fell down twice in the space of half an hour; and the last time did not recover his sensies, till he was put to bed, and bled to the quantity of 18 or 20 ounces. The patient continu'd all night restless and fullen, and in the morning was bled again to the quantity of 15 ounces. Mr. Hartley was sent for and came about 8 at night, and found him very fullen, thirsty, but averse to drinking, and his pulse quick and hard. He ordered him to be put into the cold bath: About midnight his pulse rising, the Dr. ordered him to be bled to the quantity of 16 or 18 ounces: The patient continued restless all night. About 8 in the morning he went into the cold bath again. About 10 Mr. Hartley going away left it as his opinion, that the cold bath and bleeding should be freely repeated, as the circumstances should require. About noon Mr. Sandys came and bled the patient to the quantity of 18 or 20 ounces: He continued restless all this night. Upon Mr. Sandy's asking the patient, whether

his

his aversion to drinking proceeded from any pain in swallowing or some other cause? He made answer it was from a pain in swallowing.

Next morning the patient's strength not being at all diminish'd, and his pulse continuing full as vigorous as ever, Mr. Sandys bled him again to the quantity of 15 or 16 ounces; yet he still continued the same, and took the same care of his horses as usual. Mr. Sandys going away left orders, that as long as the following symptoms, *viz.* restlessness, strength, and aversion to drinking continued, the patient should be blooded freely, and put into the cold bath.

He was blooded twice more within the week; so that the whole quantity he lost in that time was about 120 ounces.

After the last bleeding his symptoms disappear'd, and he grew weak, low spirited and sleepy: Then he went 8 times into the cold bath. He did not take any medicines during his whole illness.

*N. B.* This person continued well ever since, Anno 1758.

*New Experiments on Ice by the Abbé Nolet, Phil. Trans. N° 449. p. 307.*

1. ICE, that begins to melt, and water, that begins to freeze, have always the same degree of cold.
2. That cold may be increased by a mixture of salts.
3. It has been thought for a long time that saltpetre was the fittest to heighten the cold of ice, but experiments have shewn, that few salts do it so little as that salt. Mix one part of fine saltpetre with two parts of pounded ice, and M. Reaumur's thermometer will descend in it but 3 degrees and  $\frac{1}{2}$  below the freezing point:

What had caus'd this mistake is, that people generally made use of salt-petre of the first or second melting, as being the cheapest: But, that salt-petre not being purified contains a great deal of sea salt; and it was in proportion to the quantity of sea-salt, that the effect was the greater.

From this last observation one may deduce an advantageous method for trying gun-powder. For, as of the three ingredients of which it is made up, saltpetre is the only one that can increase the cold of ice; if one part of gun-powder, or a little more, be mixt with two parts of ice, and it increases its cold more than three degrees and a half, it is a sign that the saltpetre contain'd in it is not well purified: And the best gun-powder is that which does least increase the cold of ice.

4. Sea-salt, that is, the bay-salt, which is commonly used at table

table in *France*; and that which is immediately taken from the mines, call'd *sal gemmæ*, do, for the most part, give the greatest degree of cold: For, pot-ash sometimes gives a little more, but generally less. Sea-salt mixt with ice in the aforesaid proportion gives 15 degrees of cold on M. *Reaumur's* thermometer, and *sal gemmæ* 17.

5	Ashes of green wood	3 degrees
6	sea-coal	2
7	vitriol	2
8	tartar	10.
9	common pot-ash (in <i>France</i> , call'd <i>soude ordinaire.</i> )	3
10	Pot-ash made of <i>wreck</i> or sea-weed	11

This last pot-ash may be substituted instead of sea-salt, for making ice-creams, in places where salt is dear, as in *France*, where it is sold for 10 sols a pound.

1st. Because in *France* this pot-ash is sold only for two sols and a half a pound.

2dly. Because, not freezing so fast, it does not spoil the creams, by reducing them to icicles.

3dly. Because ice-creams, made this way, will keep longer in a condition fit to serve at table.

11.	Sugar gives	4 degrees
12.	Allom	1 $\frac{1}{2}$
13.	Salt of glass	10
14.	<i>Sal ammoniac</i>	12 $\frac{2}{3}$
15.	Quick-lime	1 $\frac{1}{4}$
16.	<i>Sal Glauberi</i>	2

17. The cold of ice may still be considerably increased by a mixture of spirit of wine; about a drinking-glass full of it to a pound of beaten ice.

18. The cold of ice will not increase, unless the ice melt.

*Experiments.* Put into one vessel four ounces of ice pounded very small, and into another vessel two ounces of sea-salt; set the two vessels in a mixture of ice and salt, which is still to be renew'd, till, by means of the thermometer, you find, that the salt and the ice of the two first vessels have acquir'd each of them ten or twelve degrees of cold; then mix your salt with your ice, and this mixture will not increase the degree of cold the ingredients had acquir'd, because the mixture does not melt.

But if, instead of salt, you mix with your ice spirit of nitre, cool'd to the same degree as the ice; as this last is liquid, it will melt the ice, and considerably increase its degree of cold.

19. Salt, mixt with water, increases its degree of cold.

20. Of all salts, *sal ammoniac* gives the greatest degree of cold: So that if that salt has been cool'd in ice; and then one part of it be thrown into two parts of water, cool'd to the same degree in ice, that water will become colder than ice, and will freeze other water thrown into it in a small quantity.

This last observation may be applied to the cooling of liquors, where no ice is to be had: For, there is hardly any place, but what has wells; now the water of a well moderately deep wants about eight or ten degrees of the cold of ice; and *sal ammoniac*, being cool'd beforehand in the well, will, by mixing with some of the water of that well, come very near to the cold of ice.

*An Observation of the Magnetic Needle, being so affected by great Cold, as not to traverse, by Capt. Christopher Middleton. Phil. Trans. N° 449. p. 310.*

**I**N *Phil. Trans.* N° 418. Captain *Middleton* made mention of a strange phenomenon, relating to the sea-compass, which he had frequently observ'd, when among the ice in *Hudson's Bay*; to wit, that the magnetic virtue of the needle was so far lost or destroy'd, that it would not traverse as usual, even when the ship was in a considerable motion: And in his voyage thither in 1737, he observ'd that the compass would not move at all, any longer than the quarter-master kept touching it.

There was then much snow on the land, and several isles of ice round them, and the sea not very smooth. The Captain ordered one of the compasses to be brought into the cabin; but he did not find it any better, till it had stood near the fire about a quarter of an hour; and then it began to traverse very well. He then order'd it to be placed in the binnacle, and another to be brought into the cabin; changing them alternately thus every half hour; and he found by this means he could make them traverse, as well as in any other part of the world. He was obliged to continue this practice, 'till they got near 100 leagues from the coast, but afterwards he had no occasion for that trouble.

What should be the cause of this surprising phenomenon, he cannot conjecture; being certain that the compasses, as to their mechanical structure, were very perfect, and answer'd very well both before and after, during the whole voyage. There is never

any oil used to make them move easily. For, in that case it might often congeal, and stop the motion of the chard. But whether the cold of the climate hath a power to deprive the needle of its virtue for a time; or that the friction is thereby increased to such a degree, as that it cannot be overcome by the magnetism, he could not say; but the fact is certain and surprising.

*An uncommon Palsey of the Eye-lids; by Dr. Andrew Cant-wel. Phil. Trans. N° 449. p. 311.*

A Nun about 30 years of age was troubled with as singular a disorder as the Dr. ever heard of; viz. an intermitting periodical palsey of the eye-lids, which began every evening about 6 o'clock, with a defluxion from the great *canthus* of a whitish matter of some consistence: So that she continued blind till next morning, and then recover'd the use of her eye-lids, as before.

This disorder held her for four months; from which time all remedies order'd her by her physician proving ineffectual, she was sent to *Balleruc* for the benefit of the waters.

The Dr. had a fair opportunity (as the patient and he lodged at the same house) of observing the effects the waters had on her. She was pump'd on the back part of her head and neck seven times, without receiving any sensible benefit: The ninth time her disorder seised her an hour later than usual, and the defluxion became less and thinner. The next evening it became two hours later, and the following night she had as much command of her eye-lids as ever. She took the *douche* (for, so they call this way of pumping) the next morning and evening, and was entirely cured.

The Dr. sat with her an hour that evening, carefully observ'd her eye-lids by candle light, and ask'd her several questions on her disorder. She open'd her eyes as well as the Dr. did his, and set out next day for *Montpelier*.

*An Account of a Man whose Arm with the Shoulder-blade was torn off by a Mill, on the 15. of Aug. 1737; by Mr. John Belchier. Phil. Trans. N° 449. p. 313.*

ONE Samuel Wood, about 26 years of age, being at work in one of the mills near the *isle of Dogs* over against *Deptford*, and going to fetch a sack of corn from the further part of the mill, in order to convey it up into the hopper, care-

fessly took with him a rope, at the end of which was a slip knot, which he had put round his wrist; and passing by one of the large wheels, the cogs of it caught hold of the rope, and he not being able to disengage his hand instantly, was drawn towards the wheel, and rais'd off the ground, till his body being check'd by the beam which supports the axis of the wheel his arm with the shoulder-blade was separated from it.

At the time the accident happen'd, he says, he was not sensible of any pain, but only felt a tingling about the wound, and being a good deal surprised, did not know that his arm was torn off, till he saw it in the wheel: When he was a little recover'd, he came down a narrow ladder to the first floor of the mill, where his brother was, who seeing his condition ran down stairs immediately out of the mill to a house adjacent to the next mill, which is about 100 yards distant from the place where the accident happen'd, and alarm'd the inhabitants. But before they could get out of the house to his assistance, he had walked by himself to within about 10 yards of the house; where being quite spent by the great effusion of blood, he fainted away and lay on the ground: They immediately took him up, and carried him into the house, and strew'd a large quantity of loaf-sugar powder'd into the wound, in order to stop the hemorrhage, till they could have the assistance of a surgeon, whom they sent instantly for to Limehouse; who brought with him an apparatus for a broken arm, which he understood by what he could learn from the messenger to be the case: However, he sent home for proper dressings, and when he came to examine particularly into the wound, in order to secure the large blood-vessels, there was not the least appearance of any, nor any effusion of blood: So having first brought the fleshy parts of the wound as near together as he could, by means of a needle and ligature, he dress'd him up with a warm digestive, and applied a proper bandage. The next morning he open'd the wound again, in company with two surgeons more; and not perceiving any effusion of blood at that time, he dress'd him as before, and sent him in the afternoon to St. Thomas's Hospital, where he was admitted a patient under the care of Mr. Ferne, from which time he was constantly attended, in expectation of a hemorrhage from the subclavian artery: But there being no appearance of fresh bleeding, it was not thought proper to remove the dressing during the space of four days, when Mr. Ferne open'd the wound; at which time likewise

there

there was not the least appearance of any blood-vessels : So he dress'd him up again, and in about two months time the cure was entirely completed.

Upon examining the arm within a day or two after it was separated from the body, Mr. Belchier found the *scapula* fractur'd transversely, as were likewise the *radius* and *ulna* in two places : But whether these bones were fractured before the arm was torn off, the man could not possibly judge.

The muscles inserted into the *scapula* were broke off near their insertions, but the muscles arising from the *scapula* came away with it entire.

The *latissimus dorsi* and *pectoralis* were likewise broke off near their insertions into the *os humeri*.

The integuments of the *scapula* and upper part of the arm were left on the body, as also the clavicle.

But what is very surprising is, that the subclavian artery, which could never be got at to be secured by art, should not bleed at all after the first dressing ; the artery being separated so happily, that when its coats were contracted, the fleshy parts press'd against its mouth, and prevented any effusion of blood.

*A Bullet lodged near the Gullet for almost a Year ; by George Lord Carpenter. Phil. Trans. N° 449. p. 316.*

THE late Lord Carpenter was wounded, at the defence of the breach of Bribuega in Spain, in the mouth, by a small musket-ball, which, having taken away part of his upper lip, beat out all his teeth, excepting two, on one side ; broke and splinter'd part of his upper jaw-bone, went thro' his tongue, and lodged itself near his gullet, where it remain'd fifty one weeks and three days, before it was extracted.

The ledge which was made upon the bullet by the two fore-teeth, lying almost by the gullet, and continually grating upon it, occasioned an intolerable pain, and hindering him from swallowing any thing but liquids, it brought him so low, that his life being despair'd of, to make a final trial, his tongue was drawn out as far as possible ; and one of the surgeons feeling the ball with his probe, which he then took to be a piece of a tooth (several pieces of teeth having been beat into his tongue by the bullet) and endeavouring to extract it, he took hold of the ledge with his forceps, and pull'd the ball out, after which he recover'd in a few weeks.

The marks of the foreteeth were to be seen on the bullet, and where it flatt'd upon the jaw-bone.

There .

There is an extraordinary account of a gun-shot wound in *Phil. Trans.* N° 320, being the case of one Dr. *Fielding* who was shot in near the eye; and after 29 years the bullet was cut out near the *pomum Adami*.

*An obstruction of the Biliary Ducts, and an Imposthumation of the Gall-bladder, discharging upwards of 18 Quarts of Bilious Matter in 25 Days, without any apparent defect in the Animal Functions; by Mr. Claudio Amyand.* Phil. Trans. N° 449. p. 317.

**O**N E Mr. *Le Grange*, about 50 years of age, of a sallow bilious complexion, died of an abscess in the gall-bladder.

Dr. *Vatas* his physician in ordinary says, that about 14 years before, this Gentleman was afflicted with a tertian ague, which was cured by the bark; and from that time had complained of a sense of weight, and some uneasiness and hardness in the region of the liver and *borborygmi*, which were reliev'd by frequent purgations; notwithstanding which, he had enjoy'd all the appearances of health, till about four months before his death, when some symptoms of the jaundice first began to appear on him, which had greatly increased five or six weeks before he died, when he began to complain of shooting pains on the right *hypochondrium*; which was soon follow'd with a hard inflammatory tumour there, tending to suppuration.

May 4. Mr. *Amyand* met Dr. *Vatas* and Mr. *Fiquel* his surgeon, in order to open a large abscess pointing below the cartilages of the second and third spurious ribs on the right side. It was determin'd to open it immediately with a lancet, whereupon a pint of a purulent fetid matter was discharged. The aperture being large, and the dressings easy, by the next day it was found, that a very large quantity of *fanies*, and some pus left in the bag, had found a vent; and this was so great, that it was thought proper to renew the dressings twice a day.

This had the desir'd effect so far, that from this time the matter decreased daily till the 12th of May, when during the night, the wound had discharged near two quarts of matter of a saffron colour, intermixt with large flakes and thick lumps of a coagulated lymph or jelly, tinged of a deep yellow; and what surpris'd no less was, that upon dressing, way was made for the discharge of about a quart more of the same, as the orifice of the bursted bag was enlarged, to favour the coming out of the large flakes and lumps of jelly, obturating at times this orifice.

During

During this day the discharge was very great, and at night about a pint more of the same matter was emptied : From this time a short and thick *cannula* was left in the opening of the bursted bag, this causing a more easy and constant discharge ; and a vulnerary injection, strongly saturated with spirit of wine, had the good effect to diminish it very considerably ; but yet it continued so very great, that there was just reason to apprehend the patient would soon sink under so great a flux of this bilious matter, and the rather as his stomach and rest failed him ; but the discharge daily lessening, and his appetite and rest returning in proportion, he recovered strength enough to be able to walk : All this while the appearances of the jaundice were wearing off, the urine was returned to its natural colour, and the patient had regularly a natural stool every day, till about 8 days before his death ; when his body becoming costive, the physician found it necessary to discharge the *fæces* by clysters and lenient purges : Whilst Mr. Amyand attended him, his belly was always free from fullness or tension, being soft and lank, and he less troubled with wind, than he had been for many years before : Two days before he died, he went to air himself in another room and caught cold : This is presumed to have occasioned a fever, followed with a lethargy, in which he continued till the 29th of May, when he died.

Upon dissection, it was observed that the patient was not near so extenuated, as might have been expected, after so great a discharge of bile and lymph for 25 days ; for, much fat was still observed under the skin and elsewhere, and his flesh not much sunk from the natural state, but the blood-vessels were found extremely empty : In the *abdomen* the *caul* or *omentum* was shrivel'd up, and adher'd to a great bag or *cystis*, affixed to the inside of the great lobe of the liver, and stretching from thence along the right flank, over one half of the kidney on that side : The left lobe of the liver was removed from the left side to the right, not reaching farther than the right edge of the *Cartilago ensiformis*, and the *pylorus* : The *ligamentum latum suspensorium hepatis* was drawn backwards into the right *hypochondrium* : The liver was of a natural colour, but very small, and more decayed and wasted in proportion than the other viscera, but as free as they from any preternatural adhesion, obstruction or induration ; and the bag or *cystis*, arising from it, strongly adhering by its outside only, to the *peritonæum*, down to the right kidney.

Upon

Upon passing the finger thro' the wound in the integuments, it entered first into a cavity made between the *peritonæum* and the outside of the *cystis*, in which the matter of the *abscess* had been lodged, and then thro' a hole in the *cystis*, or grand bag thro' which the great collection of bile in this *saccus* had afterwards made its way ; and it was observed that the strong coalition of this bag to the *peritonæum*, round that part where the *pus* had been collected, had shut up all communication with the cavity of the belly, and thereby prevented any extravasation into the *abdomen*.

Now the bag or *cystis* being separated from the *peritonæum*, and this and the liver spread on a board, it was observed that the matter had been collected in the gall-bladder, without affecting the liver itself : The *vesica fælis* was become a very large bladder, and extended so as then to appear capable of containing three pints, or more ; it was nearly as broad as long ; it arose very broad from the inner surface of the right lobe of the liver, which it occupied about 10 inches in circumference or more ; its bulk had removed the stomach and *pylorus* from their natural situation, and pressed them far under the left hypochondre, and that part of the *colon* placed naturally on the right kidney, forwards upon the spine ; its surfaces were rugged and unequal, as that of a *potato*, and its coats thick and horny, forming several tumours, elongations or expansions, of different sizes and figures ; one of which, as large as a hen's egg, was full of a cretaceous matter, intermixt with hard white stones : This cretaceous bag was made in the duplicature of the gall-bladder, but had no communication with, nor opening into it, which, several other tumours appearing of the same kind, had : Whence it was presumed that some very small pieces of cretaceous matter, found in the great bag, might have dropt from them into it, but it is more likely we had dropt them there, because nothing like them had been discharged thorough the wound. The outward opening in this bag answer'd in the cavity of the *abscess*, wherein incision had been made, as this latter was formed between it and the *peritonæum*. In the bag were found about two ounces of the same bilious matter, which had all along been discharged ; which being computed must be equal to, if not exceed the quantity of 18 or 20 quarts, during the 25 days the patient liv'd, from and after the opening of the tumour.

It has been observed, that the liver was in a natural state, and that the matter collected in the gall-bladder had not in the least

least wounded or affected the liver itself: So that the large quantity of bile and lymph daily discharged thro' the incision, must have proceeded from the internal surface of the distended gall-bladder.

This put them upon enquiring for the *radices cysticæ* and the hepatic-cystic ducts, namely, those very ducts which *Giovanni Caldesi* has so carefully traced in several animals, and delineated in his *Observationi Anatomiche al illustrissimo S. Francisco Redi*, 1687. and which *Verbeyen* has discover'd in the bullock kind, but could not trace in human subjects; namely these ducts whereby so great a quantity of gall has been deposited in the gall-bladder; for as much as the *ductus cysticus* was obturated, whereby some anatomists have supposed the gall to flow back from the hepatic ducts: And upon dissection, was traced a trunk like that, which *Bidlow* and *Winiford* observ'd in man, and like that formed by several branches in the liver, and discharging itself into the gall-bladder.

The *ductus communis choledochus* was found empty, and opening, as usual, into the cavity of the *duodenum*; but the *cystic* duct was compressed by the bag in such manner, that nothing could pass thro' it.

The *spleen*, *pancreas*, and all the other *viscera*, were in a natural state, saving (as hath been already observ'd) that some of them had changed their natural situations.

Upon the whole it appears, 1. That the animal functions have been noways vitiated by some of the *viscera* having been displaced; and notwithstanding that for 25 days the discharge of the bile thro' the wound had been so great, that little was left to pass into the *duodenum*, nevertheless he digested his food well. The stools continued regular, till within a few days before he died; and even to the last the *fæces* all along retain'd their natural colour.

2. It may be observ'd, that the jaundice in this patient was not occasioned by the obstruction in the *cystic* duct, tho' that is imagined as a common cause of this malady: For, this obstruction must have been of many years standing, and this patient's jaundice was of a very late date. Nor was his jaundice owing to any retention of the bile in the *porus biliarius*, from the tumour continually pressing that duct, and thereby obstructing the free discharge of the bile from the glands of the liver into the *duodenum* and gall-bladder; nor even to the strong compression and total obstruction of some, yea almost all the biliary ducts, viz. the *pori biliarii*, the *ductus hepaticus*, the *hepatocystici*,

*cystis*, and the *ductus cysticus* and *communis choledochus*; the principal of which are seated in the cavity of the great lobe of the liver, under the pressure of this great and hard tumour, and under its increase for near 14 years together, obstructions and compressions generally accounted as primary and idiopathic causes of the jaundice; because no distemper like the jaundice had appear'd in this patient till a few months before his death; and no true jaundice till within a few weeks, and only then as the *abscess* formed in the neighbourhood of the liver had brought an inflammation there: But as all the symptoms of his jaundice began to wear off, soon after the *pus* had got a vent, viz. as the inflammation of the liver, brought on occasionally by a suppuration in the neighbouring parts, wore off, and some days before the bursting of the gall-bladder, it does not appear unlikely, this inflammation of the liver was the pathognomonic cause of the jaundice here; which inflammation of the liver, as it was accidental; so the jaundice occasion'd thereby was actually removed soon after a vent was made for the purulent matter, which had occasion'd this inflammation.

N. B. The figures refered to were done by memory.

A (Fig. 2. Plate XII.) represents the external surface of the right lobe of the liver.

B. B. Parts of the same.

C. C. The ligament which suspends the liver to the dia-phragm.

D. D. The ligament which suspends it to the *cartilago ensiformis*.

E. Part of the gall-bladder below the liver in its fore-part, emptied of its contents, arising from the cavity of the right lobe, 10 to 12 inches in circumference.

F. F. F. F. Its adhesions to the *peritonæum*.

G. An opening into the external bag or *abscess*, or incision into it.

H. H. H. H. H. Elongations and inequalities in it.

O. O. O. O. The angles of the *cystis* open'd, shewing in its back parts an elongation opening into it at P.

A. A. A. (Fig. 3.) represents the concave side of the liver.

B. The umbilical vein.

C. The *vesica biliaria* emptied; which when full cover'd almost all the inside of the right lobe on its back part.

D. D. D. D. D. Several elongations or expansions of the *vesica* opening into the gall-bladder.

E. The cretaceous bag in its duplicature full of a chalky matter, intermixt with hard white irregular stones,

*Some Observations on the above-mention'd Case; by Dr. Alexander Stuart. Phil. Trans. N° 449. p. 325.*

THE Dr. points out what appears to him to be the mechanical and necessary connexion between the apparent causes and the effects in this uncommon case.

1. As to the original or prime cause of all the symptoms, to wit, the distention of the gall-bladder, now become a morbid *cystis* of an enormous size.

If we consider the size and figure of the liver, the situation of the gall-bladder, with the course or direction of the biliary vessels, from various places of the liver, towards that narrow space where the *pori biliarii* open into the *cystis*, it will appear, that in almost every position of the body, at least in an erect, supine and lateral position, some of these biliary ducts, terminating in the gall-bladder, are perpendicular or nearly perpendicular to the horizon and to the *cystis*: Therefore, as far as gravity takes place in the animal oeconomy, the bile descending by these ducts, will press upon the contents of the full *cystis* and its sides, as a cylinder of that fluid, of the length of the secretory ducts or tubes, and of the diameter of the *cystis*.

Besides this, the extremity of every one of these small ducts conveys its fluid into the full *cystis*, as a wedge acted upon by the repeated strokes, impulses or pressure of the circulating blood of the *vena porta*, where it supplies the gland at the origin of each secretory duct.

Therefore, by the known laws of hydrostatics and mechanics, it is plain, that the force of this secretion of the bile into the gall-bladder is very great, and the quantity thereof considerable; sufficient at least to distend the *cystis* to an enormous pitch, where the discharge by the *ductus cysticus* is not equal to the secretion by the *pori biliarii*, and the *ductus hepatico-cysticus*.

These said powers do sufficiently account for the distention of the *abdomen* in an *ascites*, of the womb in gestation, of the bladder in a morbid or voluntary retention of urine; as also of morbid impostems or tumours, and of the gall-bladder in the case before us.

But this distention could never have happened, without a total or partial obstruction of the excretory duct, namely the *ductus cysticus*.

Had this obstruction been at once total, as when a *calculus* is thrown suddenly out of the *cystis* into the duct, and stops it entirely, he must have had the jaundice immediately, or very soon after: For, notwithstanding the strong powers above-mentioned, it would have been impossible for the sides of the *cystis* to have yielded to such a sudden dilatation, no more than the womb in the first week of gestation can be dilated to the pitch it is brought to in the ninth month, without a rupture: So that the dilatation here must have been very slow and gradual; and therefore the obstruction must have been at first, and probably for several years, only partial; and the gall-bladder thus slowly distended, gradually yielded and gave way only for the reception of the excess of the secretion beyond the excretion; and so prevented the jaundice, or regurgitation of the bile into the blood.

This partial obstruction of the *ductus cysticus* may probably have been occasioned by one of those small soft incysted tumours, lodged between the membranes of the *cystis fellea*, near the origin of its excretory duct, containing a soft white pultaceous matter, with *calculus's* or chalky concretions in its centre.

If this was the case, it is conceivable that while the contents of this small incysted tumour was fluid or soft, it might not be capable to obstruct entirely the current of the bile thro' the excretory duct: But as the matter of it grew thicker, and its bulk increased, by pressing gradually more and more upon the duct, the obstruction must increase; and the formation of *calculus's*, by their pressure, must at last make the obstruction total,

But as the cystic duct was at opening of the body, entirely coalesced and obliterated, its vicinity and situation, with respect to these small incysted pultaceous and cretaceous tumours, cannot be precisely determined; and therefore this is offer'd only as a probable conjecture.

The bulk, contents and adhesions of the gall-bladder to the right side, were without doubt to the patient a very sensible, and to others a visible cause of his first symptom, viz. the increasing weight he felt in the region of the liver, for 14 years before his death.

The current of moving humours in the animal body is always determined most strongly to the place of least resistance: Therefore, by the partial obstruction of the cystic duct, a greater quantity of bile than usual will be forced upon the biliary ducts, leading directly from the liver into the great hepatic duct, to discharge itself by the *choledochus communis* into the duodenum, sufficient for the moderate uses of the animal oeconomy; tho'

not so perfectly sufficient, but that the peristaltic motion in the present case felt the want, or at least the defect of the cystic bile; so far as to become weak and imperfect; too weak to propel the faeces, or keep the elastic air within due bounds; and therefore the patient must be subject to flatulent distentions, and some degree of costiveness, only to be reliev'd by supplying the want of a sufficient natural stimulus of the gall, by the artificial stimulus of purgatives and clysters, to assist from time to time the expulsion both of the *faeces* and also of the *flatus's*, for the ease of the patient, as was practised in this case.

As to the jaundice, it began to shew itself four months before the patient's death, and continued increasing till the external purulent tumour in his side was opened, and then it began to decline, and quite disappear soon after the gall-bladder burst.

It is easy to conceive, that so long as the gall, descending from the *pori biliarii*, could make its way into the *cystis fellea*, and dilate it; there could be no regurgitation of the bile into the blood; and therefore no jaundice.

But so soon as the purulent impostem began to form itself in the neighbourhood and contact of the distended gall-bladder, it encroach'd or press'd upon the *cystis fellea*, by the force of a great many vessels, pouring *pus* into the cavity of the impostem, urged on by the circulation of the blood, which is more forcible in these vessels than in those of the liver.

And therefore this purulent tumour increasing, will very forcibly incroach on the *cystis fellea* in contact with it; and not only hinder its farther distention, but even force the gall it contains to regurgitate or return again by the *pori biliarii* upwards, and from thence by the capillaries of the *cava*, into the blood; and so produce the jaundice, without raising an inflammation or obstruction in the liver itself, whose vessels and passages remain open, tho' the bile take a retrograde course in its biliary secretory ducts.

But so soon as this accessory pressure is taken off from the *cystis fellea*, by opening and emptying the purulent tumour or impostem in its neighbourhood, adjoining and adhering to it, the bile begins again to flow freely into the *cystis fellea*, and dilate it as before: Therefore, the regurgitation of the bile into the blood ceaseth, and the jaundice begins to decline.

Then so soon as the rupture or bursting of the gall-bladder happened, and it began to be emptied; all degrees of resistance being now entirely taken off from the *pori biliarii*, they throw out their contents so plentifully, that the hepatic ducts are gradually

dually frustrated by such a strong revulsion; the bile begins to flow all to the wounded and almost emptied *cystis biliaria*, and either very little or none at all to be carried by the *ductus hepaticus* to the *choledochus communis*, whose diameter and passage into the *duodenum* was found larger than usual, but empty.

In this state, which was the last stage of the distemper, the peristaltic motion begins to fail, the expulsion of the faeces to be very tardy, or not at all to answer without the assistance of purging medicines or clysters, which also had but a very slender effect; the patient ceaseth to be nourish'd (tho' he took a competent quantity of food) and dies in a week after this costiveness began.

The degree of perfection of the natural, vital and animal functions in this person, during 14 years indisposition, was certainly owing to the soundness of all the *viscera*; and an almost sufficient secretion and excretion of bile by the *ductus hepaticus* into the *choledochus communis*, whose cavity and passage into the *duodenum* was large and open; which could neither have been, nor have continued, without a continual and proportional flux of bile thro' it.

For, it is well known, that as soon as the fluids cease to flow thro' their natural ducts, their sides soon collapse, coalesce, and at last entirely shut up: Thus the *wrachus*, and *canalis arteriosus Botalli* in the *fætus*, shut up entirely soon after the birth. And the Dr. and Mr. Amyand had lately seen one of the ureters entirely collapsed and shut up, for want of a fluid from the kidney, which had secreted no urine for some time; having become a *cystis*, fill'd with a thick white pultaceous matter nearly of a chalky consistence.

Therefore, as the *ductus cysticus* was found obliterated, and the *choledochus communis* large and open, it is plain, that no bile had for some time flow'd thorough the former, and that there was a constant supply from the *ductus hepaticus* to the latter, for the uses of the animal oeconomy, till the wound or rupture of the gall-bladder, gradually abating its current by that channel, at last stopp'd it quite, and put an end to the patient's life in a few days after.

The most essential points in this case, bearing a conformity with what the Dr. observ'd in a former *Transaction*, concerning the use of the bile in the animal oeconomy, may so far serve to confirm it.

An Historico-physical Observation on the Neusohl Vitriolic Waters, commonly call'd Cement-Wasser; by M. Matthias Belius. Phil. Trans. N<sup>o</sup> 450. p. 351. Translated from the Latin.

THESE springs are a mile to the north of the town of Neusohl, in the large copper-mine, call'd Herren-grund: The time when they were first discover'd and observed, is uncertain: That they were not known in the days of George Agricola, the German Pliny, may be concluded from his silence about them.

After the sacking and burning of Neusohl in 1605 by Borskay, the miners, to save their iron tools, as their hammers, &c. and other effects, hid them in the mines; where remaining for upwards of a month, they were found in those moist places cover'd over with a crust of copper, which was the thicker, the damper the place was where they had lain. From thence they therefore concluded, that the waters trickling down along the sides of the mines, must be endued with a quality of producing copper, which at length gave occasion to their making wooden trunks, for collecting these waters, as at Schmolnitz, and arching them over.

Now this compendious method of producing copper approved itself so much, that there are upwards of 20 such places; two of which M. Belius gives an account of, whereby one may easily judge of the rest.

The principal one is about 75 fathom perpendicular depth; and you descend to it in a winding manner by steps for 151 fathom: The water trickles down in single drops from the sides of the mine, and is received at first into a smaller vessel, and after that into one larger, and divided into trunks. Into the lesser are put the smaller pieces of iron, as horse-shoes and the like, which in three or four weeks time are turn'd into copper, of the same form as before, but emboss'd a little: And the water in this, has a much greater virtue than that receiv'd into the larger one: For, in the latter the iron corrodes slowly, and in such manner, that at first only a slimy pellicle, of a yellowish colour, floats upon the surface of the water, which pellicle at length gradually adheres to the iron, when not entirely consumed, like a fat slime, which the miners call *der Schmund*; and which every month they carefully take from off the iron, and put in a peculiar high place to drain; and this they repeat till the iron, or the greatest part thereof, be entirely consumed.

The

The second vault is 15 fathom lower, which from its form and situation, is call'd the *long vault*: For, being two fathoms in breadth throughout, it is 25 fathoms in length: In this the vitriolic water trickles more copiously than in the rest of the vaults: For, besides that it drops down from the sides and roof of the mine, it has two constant springs, which continually yield a stream of water of the thickness of a straw.

Both springs rise from the south; and the first is three paces to the left from the entry of the vault, and the second five paces more inwardly: And that the waters may not be wasted, they are conveyed thro' small pipes, partly into wooden trunks and partly into square vessels, into which at length are put old and new iron.

M. *Belius* observed that the trunks for receiving the water and the iron, are so carefully disposed on the ground, that none of the water can be lost: For what is receiv'd into one trunk, flows into another, and from this into a third, and so on; yet the efficacy of the waters is much diminish'd: For, in the first, the iron is consumed sooner and more strongly; but slower and more weakly in the second and third.

In this vault, from a middle wall, there trickles down a peculiar and more limpid sort of water, which is therefore receiv'd into a peculiar vessel: And into this the copper, made in the other vaults, is at length put, if they want to have it purer: For, this limpid water has the quality of rendering impure copper more fine and bright: Besides the above receptacles for the vitriolic waters, there are up and down in the windings of the mines, damp places, where iron is tinged of a copper colour, which shews that all their moisture is vitriolic.

As to the water itself, it appears greenish in the vessels or reservoirs; tho', in a clear glas, it be limpid, and transparent like crystal; it is inodorous, but of a vitriolic astringent taste, and of a cold nature. M. *Belius* unwarily tasting a few drops of the water at the springs, had his lips shrivel'd up in such manner, as those, who are just recover'd from a fever. After having crept thro' these subterraneous passages for three or four German miles, he felt no pain in his lips, but a gentle kind of itching; but upon coming into the open air, they began at first to swell, and afterwards to suppurate: In other respects the water has the same efficacy, only where it happens to trickle down more copiously: For then it is more dilute, and slower in consuming iron.

The water is so far from spoiling the wooden trunks and reservoirs, that receive it, that it hardens and makes them last longer than usual.

The vaults, in which the vessels are included, have no strong smell, nor any vitriol, which shoots every where else in this mine; and this M. Belius takes to be owing to the moister air, which dissolves it, and does not suffer it to coalesce into filaments or crystals: Yet in some vaults, where these waters trickle down, one shall find a whitish stone in one place, and quite bluish, like vitriol, in another: And likewise at the sides of the drifts, next the bottom of the vaults, there is a concretion of a kind of mean salt, which, mixt with a moist and yellow earth, is insipid, and friable like *lapis specularis*.

The miners, in desperate cases, do with great hopes of success, drink this vitriolic water as a medicinal potion, which at length causes either a purging or a vomiting, or both at the same time.

The use of it is safer in *ophthalmia's*, if it be cautiously applied in the manner of a collyrium: 'For, vitriolic waters do service to the eyes', as *Agricola* says lib. II. p. m. 117. *de natura eorum quæ effluunt ex terra*.

The copper, which these vitriolic waters generate, is much finer, more ductile, and apter to smelt and fuse than the other kinds of copper; whereby goldsmiths have been induced to make bowls, drinking cups, and tobacco boxes of it.

While this copper remains in the waters, it is much more friable than when taken out of them: For then it hardens in some measure, by a closer concretion of its constituent particles.

The abovementioned slime is no other than indigested copper, precipitated from the water, and sticking to the iron; which is yearly carried to the copper-forge at *Neusöhl*, and there refined into the purest copper, and that without any waste; by reason that the iron which is consumed by the vitriolic water leaves behind it a little heterogenous matter in the said slime.

Before these vitriolic veins of water were spoil'd by an inundation that happened within M. Belius's memory, it is certain, a greater quantity of copper was produced from iron: For, in 1707 eighty eight centners of iron were turned into copper; whereas now scarce 20 centners a year.

Whence we may easily conclude, that that inundation greatly impair'd the pristine efficacy of the vitriolic waters; the veins, becoming more copious, entirely weakened the vitriolic spirit,

which they carried along with them; and the few vitriolic vaults, there formerly were, produced more copper, than 20 vaults now; because most of them do not produce solid copper, but slime only, which, as has been said, must at length be refined in a strong fire.

Thus far as to the disposition of these vitriolic waters: M. *Zelius* comes now to give an account of the experiments he himself and his friends made to find out their more intimate nature.

*Ex. 1.* A pound of the strongest vitriolic water, gradually and slowly evaporated, was at first turbid, depositing a little dirty powder, which, afterwards boil'd to dryness, left behind it two scruples and a half of a greenish remainder; this remainder dissolv'd in water, in the usual manner, yielded a green solution; which at length filtered and evaporated, gave two scruples of crystals of vitriol. What remain'd of the powder was of a dirty colour, and weigh'd six grains: So that a pound (apothecary weight) of the vitriolic water scarce holds above two scruples of vitriol of copper.

*Ex. 2.* A pound of the same vitriolic water, precipitated with oil of tarrar, became turbid and of a sea-green colour; this, at length filtered, left a remainder in the strainer; which dried, yielded two scruples and a half, with a little mean salt.

*Ex. 3.* In fine, a pound of vitriolic water in a glass accurately stopped, began to tinge insensibly of a copper colour, an iron wedge that had been put into it, with bubbles adhering to it here and there; the following day, the water became turbid and whitish, with whitish streaks observable at the same time at the bottom of the glass, and about the wedge: And some days after, a dirty or copperish sediment was observ'd on the same wedge.

From these experiments we learn.

1. That this water is really vitriolic, and plentifully saturated with vitriol of copper, and flows from metallic veins, in which the vitriolic pyrites is dissolv'd.

2. That the same water corrodes and dissolves iron, and precipitates its copperish particles; which insensibly put on the form of the iron, put into it, and to which they adhere; and this a more accurate inspection of this copper abundantly shews: For, it is not formed into a solid and smooth mass, but consists of a vast number of little grains, which coalesce into one friable body, like the spawn of fish.

And indeed it is a thing well known both to chemists and metallurgists, and even to such as are but moderately acquainted with

with these arts, that one metal is precipitated by another: For, quicksilver, dissolv'd in *aqua fortis*, precipitates silver; silver lead; lead copper; and in fine, copper iron.

Hence, upon dissolving a bit of copper in *aqua fortis*, and afterwards putting into it a bit of iron; the same transmutation may be observ'd therein, as in the vitriolic waters; namely that *menstruum* will corrode and dissolve the iron, and at the same time the copper, mixt with the *menstruum*, will be separated from it, and subside insensibly and slowly into the place of the iron.

Since these things are really so; we may hence refute the conclusions, rashly drawn by some from the effects of this vitriolic water.

And 1. Since an equal bulk of copper is usually got from this water, with the iron put into it; such argue wrong who think, that the iron, corroded by the water, deposite the copper particles it contain'd, as loosened from their tye, and entirely consumes the remaining material parts, or cause them vanish.

2. Nor can the essential transmutation of iron into copper take place in this whole operation of nature; which alchemists and other pretended artists perciade themselves, and others; as if a more imperfect and ignoble metal could be entirely changed into one more perfect and noble: For, it sufficiently appears from the above-mentioned experiments, and from physicks, that the aforesaid vitriolic water does not transform iron into copper, but only deposite its copper particles, with which it was before impregnated. And M. *Belius* might from his own observation evince the quite contrary to what these pretended artists affirm: For, if iron and copper, metals nearly allied, cannot, by the help of nature it self, be transformed into one another, as, for instaace, iron become copper, much less can that be expected from art, even advanced to the greatest pitch.

That among all the metals, copper and iron, are peculiarly allied to each other, M. *Henckel* has abundantly made out in *list. pyritum*. p. 424. where at the same time, p. 422 he affirms that, amongst so many experiments, he did not meet with any stone, or copper ore, which the magnet would not attract: So that the attractive virtue of the magnet next to iron, is observ'd to affect copper: And since iron and copper are metals that equally yield what is properly call'd vitriol; a thing which cannot be said of the other metals under the same species and

form : For, they are of a like substance and colour, either green or blue ; and were the pretended hermaphrodite vitriol found any where, it must necessarily be discover'd by infallible signs in the present operation of nature ; and yet this never happens.

Moreover, that the vitriolic waters of *Neusöhl* derive all their virtue and efficacy, as mention'd above, from the vitriolic *pyrites* dissolv'd in subterraneous *meatus's*, is a thing both self-evident, and confirmed by the works at *Schmolnitz* : For, the whole tract of that town, both on the surface and inside, abounds in a vitriolic *pyrites* : So that the vitriolic water (*cement-wasser*) springs up plentifully not only within the mines, but on their surface ; whence it happens that it is at the same time stronger and more efficacious to precipitate copper than the water in *Herren grund* : And the people of *Schmolnitz* are wont, in dry weather, and when the vitriolic waters in the springs fail to water abundantly, with common water from the neighbouring springs, the heaps of vitriolic *pyrites* landed from the mines, as also the old drifts ; so that this common water, by elixiating the vitriolic *pyrites*, does thereby acquire its virtue of corroding iron, and precipitating copper : Which happens thus ; these common waters running together into wooden trunks and vessels do, by elixiating the *pyrites*, acquire the same virtue and efficacy with the native and vitriolic waters.

*A Bubonocele or rupture in the Groin, and the Operation made upon it ; by Mr. Amyand. Phil. Trans. N° 450 p. 361.*

**O**N the 8th of October, 1737, one Mrs. *Benner*, 70 years of age, of a thin habit of body, had a return of a tumour in the groin, with unusual pain, which was soon followed with a cruciating one in the belly, and such colics, reachings and excrementitious vomitings, as usually attend the strangulation of the gut in the *miserere mei*. This came upon her unawares, and the distress she was in made her forget that for 25 years before she had had a swelling in the groin, as big as a hazel-nut, which seldom had given her any uneasiness, and which she never suspected to be a rupture. Latterly the patient had been more subject to colics than usual, but that was imputed to bad digestions ; and that day she had used no motion capable of producing a rupture : So that it was by chance that Mr. *Despaignol*, who was sent for the next day, discover'd the cause of the complaint. She was blooded, clyster'd, fomented, poulticed and embrocated ; but the complaints subsist-

ing with a continual *singultus*, Mr. Amyand was call'd in the 11th.

The tumour was now oblong, about the bigness of a hen's egg, somewhat inflamed, yet not tense, nor so painful as to take much notice of it.

Upon the repeated use of the above-mention'd means, and of lenient purges and opiates, the vomitings and hiccough were at times stopped, and the patient made so much easier, as to ground hopes of success; but as during six days the patient had had no passage, and the tumour could not be reduced, it was thought unsafe to delay the operation any longer. At this time she was free from a fever, the belly was not tense, and she had considerable intervals of rest.

The tumour felt unequal, tho' it appear'd even, and pappy, as the tumours of the *omentum* generally are; and therefore of that kind which is always most difficult to reduce, the *omentum* not having that elastic springiness which favours the replacing of the guts.

Upon dissection it was found embodied in the hernial bag, and that upon the external surface of the slits in the abdominal muscles, the folds of it had formed a round protuberance, not unlike the *os tincæ* in the *vagina*, or like a *bourlet*, which, by compressing the gut, prevented its return into the belly, and by obturating the opening, as the gut press'd upon it, had strangulated about an inch of the gut encompast by it in the *hernia*.

This being the 6th day from the beginning of this disorder, the gut in that place was found of a very swarthy colour, but yet springy; so that it was not quite mortified. It lay inclosed in a net, formed by the *omentum*, (like a fish in a fishing net) strangulating the gut under its pressure without the abdominal muscles.

It was with some difficulty the *omentum* was torn off and separated from the bag it was attach'd to; and as this lay in the way of the reduction of the gut, and almost sphacelated; so it was cut off without any previous ligature, tho' its vessels were turgid and large, as it was impossible to pull it out so as to make the ligature upon the sound part of it; after which the reduction of the gut might easily have been made, without enlarging the annular slit: For, this made no stricture to prevent it.

But the quantity of the *omentum* within it being large and bulky, and the gut in a very crazy state, it was thought more expedient to enlarge it, to make the reduction of the whole easy: Afterwards the *omentum* was detach'd from its adhesion round

round this place, and pull'd farther out ; and a ligature being made upon the sound part of it, that was also replaced in the belly, and the entrance stopt with a conical tent, dipt in the yolk of an egg and oil of St. John's wort ; the belly was embrocated, and the dressings well secured : For, as the patient was very much oppressed with an asthma ; so she was obliged to be sitting in bed.

From this time the hiccough and excrementitious vomitings disappear'd, but the reachings and vomitings continued near five days longer, before the *fæces*, detain'd above the strangulated gut, could make their way downwards, tho' they were frequently invited by clysters and lenient purges.

The patient was blooded immediately after the operation ; and soon after took an emollient and carminative clyster, which was repeated night and morning ; and an oily laxative of two drachms of *manna*, and half an ounce of oil of sweet almonds, in mint and small cinnamon-water, every four hours.

At first the evacuations were exceeding fetid, black, griping and frequent ; but they became more moderate, as she took absorbents and diluents ; but yet so frequent, that it was thought proper to restrain them by gentle astringents ; so that she might be enabled to bear them.

In five or six days the stools had remov'd the tension, which appear'd on the belly after the operations ; the reachings and vomitings, and the remaining symptoms went off ; the wound digested well, and the patient continued in a mending way.

It has been already observ'd, that this old woman was very much afflicted with an asthma : She had at times violent fits of it ; and the 14th day from the operation she had one, with a total stoppage of the discharge from her lungs, which choak'd her on the 17th day.

This case confirms Mr. Amyand in what he has frequently observed on the like occasion ; namely, that as the *omentum* is the principal obstacle to the reduction of the guts in ruptures ; so it is the occasion of the greatest accidents that attend that evil. It wraps up and encloses the prolapsed gut, like a net, whose fasten'd end within the belly strangulates the part detain'd in the rupture without the abdominal apertures, where it is confined ; and is productive of such folds in it, and pressures of the gut wrapt up therein, as is oftener the cause of a strangulation and *miserere mei* than the tendinous slits of the external oblique muscles in the inguinal rupture, or tendinous opening in the navel ; which upon these is seldom found inflamed, and

and can never contract so suddenly, as to obstruct the return of the gut into the *abdomen*, when the *omentum* is wanting: Agreeable to which, it is rare to find any strangulated rupture that is not attended by it.

The fatty substance of the *omentum* subjects it to inflammations, suppurations and putrefactions, that contaminate the neighbouring parts. It wants that elastic springiness the guts have, which favour the reduction in ruptures. It frequently stays behind when the guts are reduced, and therefore bars the patient not only from the benefit of retentive trusses he stands in need of for his security, but it directs the gut into the rupture where it lies, the guts being very apt to slide down along it; and when it is fixt in the rupture, it too often pulls and draws into it the *cæcum* and *colon* it is attach'd to, and even the stomach itself, in proportion as the quantity of it in the rupture happens to be more or less; and therefore umbilical ruptures are the most dangerous of any: For, as the *omentum* lies over the guts, so it is always prest in foremost, in the ruptures of this part, which, when large, will likewise cause an elongation of the bottom of the bladder that way, and a difficulty of urine, in proportion as the *urachus* attach'd there is stretch'd forwards towards the navel.

The pain, attending the *prolapsus*, soon swells the vessels of the *omentum*, and that will fill up the apertures in the abdominal muscles, thro' which the *viscera* are fallen out, prevent their return, and bring on an inflammation: If by plentiful bleeding the vessels emptied do not facilitate the return of the parts prolapsed, and all the consequences that are generally observ'd upon the like occasion; and if these do not operate soon, it is very seldom that any thing is got by the application and use of all the other means prescribed.

It is, however, certain, that it is very dangerous to depend too long upon them; and that a suspension of the symptoms is no security, whilst the due course of the *fæces* is interrupted.

The case here mentioned may be a warning to others, not to delay too long an operation, whereby the parts are to be released from confinement; and which oftener would be successful, if it was not delay'd so long.

In the case of a rupture with a *miserere mei*, some deny that excrements and clysters from the lower guts can ascend and be discharged thorough the mouth, upon a presumption, that the strangulation which prevents and stops the descent of a thin fluid downwards, must likewise prevent the ascent, and especially

cially of such solid substances as are said to be discharged upwards; and the rather that the *valvula coli*, and the *ruga* or valves of the guts must impede the ascent: But the fact is true; and there is no one converiant in practice but has observ'd *faeces* and oily clysters discharged upwards.

If this be allow'd, it will follow, that in the rupture of the guts, there is a passage thorough their pipe; and consequently, that the strangulation must be less than it is generally ascertain'd.

The inflammation of the guts inverts (but we do not know how) their peristaltic action, and the discharge of the *faeces*; and that so long as that is continued: Insomuch that this will continue even for some days after the reduction of the gut is made.

Parts inflamed and in contact will soon stick and coalesce together. Pain is the indicating sign of inflammation; and an inflammation is an intumefaction of the vessels in the parts inflamed.

If then pain happen to be an attendant of a rupture, wherein the *omentum* is concerned; and the parts so inflamed continue in contact; that is, if the parts prolapsed in a rupture are not soon reduced, they will swell in the bag, and be knit together; and by filling up the opening, by which they had prolapsed, choak up the passage, clog and prevent the returning back, compress the guts under the pressure, and strangulate them more and more, in proportion as their bulk shall increase so long as the fluids can flow into the compress'd canals; in which they at last stagnate, and upon extravasation suppurate; or the mortification of the parts compress'd ensues.

*A Pin taken out of a Child's Bladder; by Mr. William Gregory. Phil. Trans. N° 450. p. 367.*

**M**R. *Gregory* was call'd to the assistance of a woman in travail: The *fœtus* presented in a transverse position. He soon recovered the feet, and in a few moments delivered the woman.

The *funiculus umbilicalis* was so short, that it was with difficulty he could make a ligature upon it, in order to make a separation: He immediately extracted the secundine, and measur'd the *funiculus*, which was little more than four inches long.

As soon as the woman was taken care of, he examin'd the child, which he found to be imperfect in several parts, there being no *anus*, nor privities to distinguish of what sex it was:

Where

Where the *vulva* should be, there was a small perforation (tho' no appearance of *labia*) thorough which the urine always pass'd away : There was likewise a large *bernia umbilicalis*, and a little lower in the *linea alba* was a perforation, into which the *rectum* open'd ; and that way the excrements pass'd during the time the child liv'd, which was almost 10 weeks.

Several days before the child died, a gangrene appear'd on the *bernia*, which soon pass'd into the intestines, and occasion'd the child's death. The *bernia*, Mr. *Gregory* thinks, was occasion'd by the shortness of the *funiculus*, which did not grow in length proportionable to the *fetus* ; the child was perfect in all other parts.

When the child died, Mr. *Gregory* only inspected into the *rectum* (which he found as above described) and into the urinary bladder, which he found very small, and no urine in it : The child was never observ'd to make water in a stream whilst it liv'd, which makes him think the *sphincter vesicæ* was imperfect.

In handling the bladder, he found something sharp pointing to his finger ; he could not discover what it was till he snip'd off the neck of the bladder : He then took out of the bladder a tough kind of substance, about the bigness of a small fig, in which was a pin with the head on, and very black.

*A very extraordinary Calculus taken out of the Bladder after Death ; by the Marquis de Caumont.* Phil. Trans. N° 450. p. 369.

FIG. 4. Plate XII. represents an uncommon stone found in the bladder of a man after death, which the Marquis de Caumont had cause engrave in his own presence, exactly conformable to the original.

The ablest physicians and the best anatomists he consulted on this subject, assur'd him they never saw any thing of the kind like it.

The engraving, tho' very exact, does not come up to this singular work of nature ; its ten branches, which spread from the centre, have some resemblance with those of certain plants.

It is with him a matter of difficulty to think, that the system of *juxta-position*, which is employ'd to explain the successive growth of common stones or *calculi*, can hold good on this occasion : He however, ventures not to advance that vegetation has any share therein ; tho' the shape of the branches of the stone, and of the canals or *papillæ*, which seen delin'd to

convey the nutritious juices, do in some measure favour this hypothesis.

From the account of this stone skilful lithotomists may reap some advantage for perfecting their operations: For, allowing the possibility of *calculi* of a conformation somewhat like this, which they may judge of by knowing the bulk of the stone, they will understand, that in such a case, no other method but that of the high operation can facilitate the extraction of an extraneous body, whose branches cannot fail causing considerable lacerations; unless they found some favourable circumstances; and that the texture of it were brittle enough to break it before its being extracted.

*An Account of the above-mentioned Case; by M. Salien.*  
Phil. Trans. N° 450. p. 371.

**O**N E Joseph Vasse, of *Le Thor*, a small town at a short league's distance from *Lisle* in the County of *Venaissin* 66 years of age, of a robust constitution, who used to travel about to fairs and markets in the said County, and dealing in corn and cattle, without having ever complain'd of any indisposition, began on the 14. of *February* 1731, to feel in the night time some difficulty of making water, attended with a smarting about the *glans*; which, however, did not hinder him from attending his business as before.

On the 28th of *March* 1732, the said *Vasse* was seized in the night with a true *ischuria*, which cruelly tormented him.

On the 29th in the evening M. *Salien* was sent for to see him and to draw off the urine; he accordingly drew six cups each containing a pint and a quarter: The patient found immediate ease, and continued without pain or fever; so that he thought himself entirely cured: But the night following the pains returned; which made him resolve to come to *Lisle* to be nearer at hand to be founded. He came on the 30th of *March* and had his water drawn off regularly every day, morning and evening till the 15th of *April* following, during all which time the patient suffer'd no pains, did not fall away, nor had any symptoms of sickness upon him.

On the 15th of *April* he supped with his usual appetite. But half an hour after supper he was seized with a violent shivering fit, which lasted a full hour; upon which a burning fever ensued, attended with an unquenchable thirst, with a violent head ach and extraordinary restlessness.

In this condition M. *Salien* found the patient about 8 in the evening, being the hour he usually went to sound him. He immediately prepared himself to draw off the patient's water, according to custom, thinking thereby to procure him some ease. Till then the catheter had enter'd without any obstacle; but this time upon pushing it into the bladder, he felt a stone which obstructed its passage. He turned the catheter to the left, and hit upon one of the branches of the stone, as represented in Fig. 4. Plate XII.

In order to know whether there was not another stone, M. *Salien* drew the catheter a little back, turning it to the right, which was done without any difficulty: And having push'd it in again, he met with another branch of the same stone, which he took for a stone different from the former; and concluded then that he had found several stones in the patient's bladder: And that if the bad symptoms, which appear'd, should continue any longer, there was no probability of his recovering.

Accordingly, the hiccough coming upon the patient on the 20th, and the other symptoms not discontinuing, he died on the 28th.

The stone was taken out four hours after his death.

The extraordinary figure of this stone will be of no great use in practical surgery; but it may furnish matter of much reasoning to philosophers, to know how it could be formed in the bladder; and yet not be troublesome to the patient for so long a time; and what had given it so particular a figure and so regular a shape.

M. *Salien*, for his part, questions not but it was suspended in the patient's bladder, where it might be framed by the urine; the dried membranous filaments, which were still perceptible on the extremities of some of the branches, are a new proof of this conjecture. The stone happening afterwards to loosen itself, may have occasioned to the patient all those symptoms that at last beset him, and afterwards death itself.

This opinion may appear extraordinary, to able lithotomists; and he submits it to their better judgment.

*Concerning the above-mentioned Stone; by Sir Hans Sloane'*  
Phil. Trans. N° 450. p. 374.

**T**HE above-mentioned stone is so singular, that among some hundreds of those in Sir *Hans Sloane*'s possession, he had not any, that came near it.

Once, it is true, he had under his care a Gentleman between 60 and 70 years of age, who had extraordinary difficulties in making water, and an inconvenience even beyond that; namely, that he could not sit in an ordinary chair, without suffering exceedingly in the region of the *peritoneum*.

With the help of lenient soft medicines and waters, the patient voided by the *urethra* a stone, which was flat in the middle, and smooth, but had five points, like the rowel of a spur: The points of the rays were sharp, but there were no asperities nor crystallizations on their surfaces: The stone was small, so as after many days to pass along the *urethra*: But had it not passed thro' the neck of the bladder, but remain'd therein, it would, in all probability have attracted matter to all the points or rays, and increased in all dimensions.

It is very common, that when any extraneous solid substance gets into the bladder, there is either attracted to it, or there adheres to and surrounds it, a tartareous calculous concretion, which assumes the figure of the said body now in its centre, as a *nucleus*.

There was a soldier cut in St. Thomas's Hospital, London, for the stone, which, when extracted, was found to cover a musket-bullet, that had been shot into his bladder, where it was cover'd by a calculous concretion.

A gentlewoman thinking with a silver bodkin to thrust back a stone that was engaged in the neck of her bladder, it slipped into it, and the calculous matter gather'd on the larger end into a stone of an oblong figure and equal thickness, half an inch all round the bodkin.

A common pin, which by some means or other had got into the bladder of a young woman, was there coated all over by a calculous matter; but having occasion'd a fistulous ulcer in her groin, it was discharged thence with the matter of the *fistula*.

It is in this manner that bezoars are formed: For, the Dr. has the common *East-India* bezoars, which are roundish, and have in their centres the seeds of a sort of *acacia*, which had attracted, or was coated over by that substance, esteemed a great cordial or alexipharmac; while others are long, and gather'd in layers or coats upon the stalks of vegetables: And he has one formed round the stone of that great plum, which comes pickled from thence, and call'd *mango*.

As to the asperities or prickles on the rays, they are taken notice of, so long ago as the time of *Cornelius Celsus*, who lib. VII. c. 26. calls them *calculi spinosi*.

It may seem very strange and paradoxical, that the fewer thy knobs, asperities or prickles are on the surface of calculi, the more troublesome they are to the persons in whose bladders they lie.

Dr. Hickes was greatly tormented with the stone in his bladder, especially upon any motion. He would not, on account of his age and several other reasons, submit to be cut for the distemper; but order'd his executors that he should be open'd after his death, and the stone taken out of his bladder, put into a silver box, and given Sir Hans Sloane to be placed in his collection of such kind of curiosities. What is very particular in this stone is, that the protuberances and prickles upon it were few, and at a distance from each other: Every one of them had made a hole in his bladder, like a sheath or socket; and when upon motion they were remov'd out of their corresponding sheath, they hurt the bladder in the sound parts, and put him upon the rack.

When the prickles are thick-set, one hinders the other from entering or wounding so deep; and probably, does not get much farther than the mucus which lines the inside of the bladder.

Some Oil of Sassafras crystalliz'd, by Mr. Maud. Phil. Trans. N° 450. p. 378.

M R. Maud observ'd the following uncommon phenomenon in chemistry, namely that some essential oil of sassafras, which had stood expos'd to a frosty night in an open vessel, was changed, three parts out of four, into very beautiful transparent crystals, three or four inches in length, half an inch in thickness, and of an hexagonal form.

These crystals subsided in water, were indissoluble in it, inflammable in the fire, and when expos'd thereto melted into their pristine state.

Hence it is evident, that they still retain the natural qualities of an oil, tho' they appear under a different modification of their constituent parts.

What is most remarkable herein is a transmutation from a fluid to a solid body, of such a particular figure; and from a yellowish liquor, not unlike *Madera* wine, to a very pellucid body, like ice, congeal'd from the most transparent water.

This seems to afford a new instance of crystallization, which being generally accounted for by the particles of a fluid, or those of any other body, suspended by the fluid, brought nearer

by

by cold; and at length coming within the sphere of each others attraction, unite together into an immediate contact.

This oil being one of the heaviest oils, and even heavier than water, is the more likely thus to unite, as its parts are nearer to one another.

This may be a hint to the curious, to discover wherein consists the difference of solidity and fluidity; and likewise shews how much the colour of bodies depends on the mechanical situation of their parts.

In *Phil. Trans.*, N° 389. and 431 Dr. Neuman gives an account of a like crystallization from thyme, which he calls *camphora thymi*.

*An extraordinary Damp in a Well in the Isle of Wight; by Mr. Benjamin Cooke. Phil. Trans. N° 450. p. 379.*

**I**N June 1733, a farmer, in hopes of finding a perpetual spring of good water, sunk a well, whose diameter was seven to the depth of 45 feet (thro' a soil, whose surface was a kind of brick earth, mixt with sand, which in descending became almost entirely hard coarse yellow sand) which work employ'd the labourers about 20 days, without finding the least appearance of water.

At the distance of about 18 foot from the top, a stratum of a mineral mixture, about 9 inches thick, was dug thorough, without any inconveniency; nor were the workmen in the least incommoded in carrying on the work, till about the 12th day after, when towards the evening they were much annoy'd with a faint suffocating heat, (which they compar'd to that coming from the mouth of an oven) and which, as they were drawn up, was most remarkably perceiv'd, when they came over against the mineral stratum abovementioned, to come out in the form of a warm sulphureous halitus.

The next morning, a lusty young man attempted to go down (hand over hand, as they call it) by means of a single rope which was used to draw up the earth dug up: But as soon as he came over against the above-mentioned stratum, he became incapable of sustaining his own weight, fell down to the bottom, and died immediately.

Another young man, not suspecting the cause, had the rope nimbly drawn up, and having seated himself alride a crost stick, fixt to the rope for that purpose, was hastily let down to his friend's assistance: But when he came to the same distance from the top, he was observ'd to give the rope a very great shock;

shock; and when he came to the bottom, fell down, as the other had done before him, was seized with violent convulsions, which held him more than a quarter of an hour, and then he expired.

A third person in hopes of fetching up this second before he was quite dead, was tied fast into a large basket, and let down more warily: But when he came to the same *stratum*, finding his breath going (as he express'd it) he cried out, and was drawn up again; but remain'd in the open air, for the space of near half an hour, pale as dead, panting and speechless.

The dead bodies were, within three hours time, drawn up by means of a sort of tongs, used to fetch things up from the bottom of the sea; but brought such a disagreeable stench in their cloaths with them, as made several hardy men, who assisted in doing of it, vomit.

The next day a cat was let down, and at the same place seized with convulsions: But being drawn quickly up again, soon came to herself; which experiment was repeated several times for some weeks following; whereby it was found, that this destructive vapour was sometimes of a greater, and sometimes lesser force, and at other times quite gone; so that the cat felt no uneasiness: And a lighted candle, which would sometimes be immediately extinguished, as soon as it sunk below this deadly *stratum*, would burn clearly at the very bottom.

It was very remarkable, that there was a whitish fog in the well, so thick that one could but just see the dead bodies through it.

Water being scarce in that place, the well was left open for about eight months, in hopes the damp might at length entirely leave it; but instead of that, it became worse; and not confining itself within its first bounds, it overflow'd at the top; where when the air was moist, it appear'd like a thin white fog; and when the air was dry, could be perceiv'd like a warm breath, at all times diffusing a sulphureous stench (something like that which arises from filings of iron while corroding with vinegar) affecting those who came into it with a giddiness, shortness of breath, and propensity to vomit: So that at last the well was fill'd up, being troublesome to the family which liv'd near it.

The above-mentioned *stratum* is continued to the neighbouring clift; where when heated with the summer's sun, it gives a noisome sulphureous stench; and, after moderate rains, is covered with

with a yellowish efflorescent salt, very astringent and acid. On the shore below are gather'd pyrites

By a letter afterwards from Mr. Cooke, he says, that the vein which was cut through the middle of the well, from whence were emitted the fatal effluvia, is a crude ore made up of iron, sulphur, and acid salts, mixt with pyrites.

These effluvia were not perceiv'd till after the vein had imbib'd the air for several days.

Whilst the air continued dry, these effluvia subsided, and lay in the lower part of the well, which seem'd fill'd near to an exact level with the stratum from whence they came.

But when the weather became rainy, the quantity as well as the impetus of the effluvia increased to such a degree, as to appear in mornings over the top of the well, in the form of a mist, and gave great annoyance to those that came within its sphere of activity.

From hence it is worth observing, that the same damp, according to the variation of the weather, is specifically heavier or lighter than the air.

*Concerning Magnets having more Poles than two; by Mr. John Eames. Phil. Trans. N<sup>o</sup> 450. p. 383.*

THE sagacious Dr. Halley, in his account of the changes of the variation of the magnetical needle, upon the hypothesis of the earth's being one great magnet having four magnetical poles, tells us, that he had found two difficulties not easily to surmount; the one was, that no magnet he had ever seen or heard of, had more than two opposite poles: Whereas the earth had visibly four, if not more, &c.

In looking over the copy of the journal-book of the Royal Society, Vol. II. Mr. Eames finds the following article.

' July 20, 1664. Mr. Ball produced several loadstones, and among them two terrella's, one of which seem'd to have four poles, with a circle passing between them, of no virtue at all. Some of the company suggested, that it was probable this stone consisted of two stones, by nature cemented together by a piece that had no magnetical quality in it.'

Qu. Whether this stone can be come at, to examine whether it be a single or a double stone?

*An Account of some Magnetical Experiments; by Dr. Desaguliers. Phil. Trans. N° 450. p. 314.*

IN 1715, trying some experiments on a very large weak load-stone, Dr. *Desaguliers* found that it had several poles: Then he tried several other loadstones, and often found four poles in such as had been armed, when he took off their armour.

In large coarse stones he found sometimes eight, nine or ten poles: This made him believe all loadstones to have several poles: But when he tried My Lord *Paisley's* loadstones, and other very good ones, he then found that homogeneous loadstones had but two poles; those that have more being only an aggregate of magnetical and other matter, which makes an heterogeneous substance. Such is the Society's great loadstone: For, it has several poles.

On the 24th of June 1736, the Dr. made the following experiment; before the Royal Society.

He took a bar of iron, of one fourth of an inch in diameter (which having stood for 15 years in an erect position, had acquir'd a fixt pole at top: So that the end, which had stood uppermost, attracted the north end of a compass needle, and the other end the south end of the needle) and having suspended it by a string for the space of half a year, it acquir'd a fixt south pole at that end, as well as it had done at the other in 15 years time, without diminishing the virtue of the other end; So that both ends of the rod in any situation attracted the north end of the compass-needle.

That rods of iron untouched, or which have not acquir'd a magnetic virtue by their situation, will with their upper end (whatever end of the bar be held upwards) attract the north end of the needle; and the lower end of the bar the south end of the needle, is a truth known many years ago, and mentioned in Dr. Brown's book of *Vulgar errors*.

*Some farther Magnetical Experiments made before the Royal Society April 21, 1737; by the Same. Phil. Trans. N° 450. p. 386.*

IT is well known, and has been often found by experience, that an iron bar, untouched by a loadstone, will, with its upper end, attract the north end of a compass needle, when the said bar is held upright; and the south end of the needle with its lower end, when applied to it, still in a perpendicular position, whatever end of the bar be held upwards; unless the

bar has acquir'd a fixt pole by having been long in a vertical position. But if the bar be brought from a vertical to an horizontal position, the needle will return into the situation it had before, which was in the magnetical meridian, the bar being then at right angles to it. Upon raising or sinking the end of the bar which is farthest from the needle, the one or the other end of the needle will begin to move towards the bar: Such a bar has in itself no fixt magnetic virtue; but if it had, it must be heated red-hot, and then cool'd in an horizontal position: A bar thus prepared is fit to make the following experiments, communicated to the Dr. by M. *Du Fay*.

Hold the bar upright, and give it a blow or two against the ground with its lower end; and that end will attract the south end of the needle, when the bar is held horizontal, and at right angles to the magnetic meridian: The other end, held horizontal in the same manner, will attract the north end of the needle. Invert the bar, and its virtue will be lost by striking as many blows with it against the ground with the other end: Then strike another blow or two; and the end, which attracted the north end of the needle, will now attract the south end; and so *vice versa*, the position being still horizontal.

If the blow be given against the ceiling, or any horizontal body, with the upper end of the bar, the same virtue will be communicated as before.

This will likewise happen, if the upper or lower end of the bar be struck with a hammer or mallet; whether the blow be given end-wise, or at right angles to the bar: Nay, tho' it should be given in the middle of the bar, the position of the bar at receiving the blow being all that is requisite: For, if you give the bar only a jerk or shake in that vertical position, it will receive the virtue, as if there were in the iron several threads, or beards, fixt at one end, as M. *Du Fay* supposes, which the blow or shake laid all one way, and which were placed the other way by inverting the bar; and then giving it a shake or blow.

N. B. When the bar is placed horizontally, a blow in the middle destroys its virtue.

An antique Metal Stamp in the Duke of Richmond's Collection, being one of the Instances how near the Romans had arriv'd to the Art of Printing; with some Remarks by Dr. Mortimer. Phil. Trans. N° 450, p. 588.

SINCE arts and sciences, especially statuary and sculpture, were arriv'd at so great perfection, when the Roman empire was in its glory; as the many beautiful statues, the exquisite intaglia's, and fine medals, which time hath handed down to us, do sufficiently evince: It is very surprising, that they never hit on the method of printing books.

The dies they made for their coins, and their stamping them on the metal, was in reality printing on metal; their seals cut in cornelians and agates, and their stamping them on dough and soft wax, was another sort of printing; and a third sort was the marking their earthen vessels, while the clay was soft with the name of the potter, or the owner the vessel was made for. These being of a larger size were properly call'd *signa*; the seals cut in stone were call'd *sigilla*, being a diminutive of *signum*: But the later and more barbarous Latinists have formed the diminutive of *signum* into *signetum*; and if a very small pocket seal, they have call'd it *signaculum*. Vide Joh. Mich. Heinicius de *sigillis*. Francof. 1709 fol. p. 16 & seq.

The learned Montfaucon, amongst his prodigious treasures of antiquities, in his *Antiquité expliquée* Tom. III. Part 2, ch. 12. gives us the figures and descriptions of several of these larger *sigilla*, or *signa*, on which, says he, the names were all cut in *creux*, in capital letters; he imagines their use to have been to mark earthen vessels, particularly those large earthen jars, wherein the Romans used to keep their wines.

If any of them had occur'd to him with the letters *excisæ*, *exculptæ*, protuberant or standing out, as the types in our modern way of printing are made, so accurate a describer of antiquities could not have pass'd such a one over without taking notice of it; and that the rather because of its being a greater rarity: Tho' several lamps of *terra cotta* are stamp'd with letters impress'd or hollow, from such protuberant letters as in Fig. 5. Plate XII. but the greater number have the letters rais'd or standing out.

The said Fig. represents one of that sort of stamps, whereon the letters are *exculptæ* or protuberant; as is likewise the edge or border round the whole stamp.

This

This stamp is made of the true ancient brass, and is cover'd over with a green scale or coat, such as is usually seen on ancient medals. It was found in or near Rome. On the back is fastened a ring, the hole whereof is  $\frac{2}{3}$  of an English inch one way, and  $\frac{2}{5}$  the other way: The plate itself is two inches long, wanting  $\frac{1}{5}$ , and its breadth exactly  $\frac{1}{2}$  of an inch: The sides are parallel to one another, and the ends are likewise parallel to each other; but they are not upon an exact square with the sides, varying about one degree and a half from an exact rectangle. On the under side stand two lines or rows of letters  $\frac{1}{8}$  of an inch in height, and well formed Roman capitals: The faces of them stand up all upon an exact level with one another, and with the edge or border of the stamp; their protuberance or height above the ground is different, the ground being cut uneven: For, close to most of the letters, the ground is cut away only  $\frac{2}{5}$ ; close to some, near  $\frac{3}{5}$ , and close to the edges, full  $\frac{1}{2}$ .

The first line of the figure contains the following letters C I C A E C I L I V, with a stop or leaf to fill up the line; in the second line H E R M I A E S N. which the Dr. judges is to be read *Caii Julii Cæcili Hermiae Signum.*

Who this *Caius Julius Cæcili s* was, the Dr. cannot find, he being probably a man in a private station; and so his name hath not been handed down to us in any monuments, but only accidentally in this stamp.

In Gruter occur two of the name of *Hermias*, and several of the *Cæcili*, but none with these two names joined together.

The use of this stamp seems to have been for the signature of the above-mentioned private man, to save him the trouble of writing his name, as some people have now adays. It was certainly used on paper or membranes, being first dipt into ink, or some sort of paint, because of the protuberance of the letters; the hollow letters being fitter for soft substances, on which they leave the impression standing up, and consequently more legible.

Another argument, that this stamp was not to be used on any soft substance into which it might be press'd quite down to the ground, is the unevenness or roughness with which the ground is finish'd; which, was it to have made part of the impression, the workman would have finish'd with more accuracy; but he knowing that the surface of the letters was to perform the whole work requir'd, was only attentive to finish them with that accurate evenness that these have.

The learned M. Mattaire, in his *Annales typographici Ha-*  
*ge, 1719* in 4to p. 4, concludes from the best authors, that our  
modern art of printing was first thought of about 1440, a  
copy of the book he mentions *ibid. p. 13*, call'd *speculum*  
*nostre salutis*, being pictures of stories out of the bible, with  
verses underneath in Dutch, which the Dr. has seen in the  
*Stadt house at Harlem*: Each page was printed from a block of  
wood, like a sorry wooden cut: And this was the first essay of  
printing, which hint was taken from engraving, and is what he  
means p. 4. by *typi fixi*: After which they soon improv'd to  
use separate types, as we now do, which he terms *ibid. typi*  
*mobiles*.

This stamp is in reality a small frame of fixt types, and  
prints with our modern printers ink, which is only a sort of  
black paint, as readily as any set of letters, cut in the rude  
manner these are, can be expected to perform: The Dr. has,  
therefore, given the figure of it, as the most ancient sample of  
printing known of: For, by the appearance of the metal it  
seems to be of the upper empire.

By this stamp it appears, that the very essence of printing  
was known to the Romans; and they had nothing to do but to  
have made a stamp with lines three or four times as long, and  
containing twenty instead of two lines, to have formed a frame of  
types, that would have printed a whole page, as well as Coster's  
wooden blocks, which he used in printing the *speculum salutis*.

In the first volume of a collection of several pieces of Mr. John  
Toland, printed London 1726, 8vo. p. 297. is a small tract of  
his, intitul'd *Conjectura verosimilis de prima typographia*  
*inventione*, which is founded upon the following passage in  
Cicero cap. 20. lib. ii. *de natura dearum*; where Balbus the  
stoic uses the following words in an argument against Velleius  
an Epicurean.

' Hic ego non miret esse aliquem, qui sibi persuadeat, cor-  
' pora quædam solida atque individua vi & gravitate ferri;  
' mundumque effici ornatissimum & pulcherrimum, ex eorum  
' concursione fortuita? Hoc qui existimet fieri potuisse, non in-  
' telligo cur non idem potest, si innumerabiles unius & viginti  
' formæ literarum (vel aureæ vel quales libet) aliquo conjiciantur;  
' posse ex his in terram excusatis annales Ennii, ut deinceps  
' legi possint, effici; quod nescio anne in uno quidem versu  
' possit tantum valere fortuna.'

He conjectures that this very passage gave the first hint to  
the inventors of printing about the year 1445; because they  
} retain'd

retain'd even Cicero's name for their types, calling them *formæ literarum*, and made them of metal, as he says, *aureæ vel quales libet*. Moreover in cap. 10. lib. III. de Divinatione, Cicero hath the very phrase *imprimere literas*.

Brands for marking cattle were in use in Virgil's time, Georg. lib. III. ver. 158, where he says,

*Continuoque notas, & nomina gentis inurunt.*

Procopius in his *Hist. Arcana* says, that the Emperor *Justinus*, not being able to write his name, had a thin smooth piece of board, thro' which were cut holes in form of the four letters represented in Fig. 6. Plate XII. which, laid on the paper, serv'd to direct the point of his pen, which being dipt in red ink, and put in his hand, it was directed by another.

Possibly this may likewise have given the hint to the first of our card-makers, who paint their cards in the same manner, by plates of pewter or copper, or only past-boards, with slits in them in form of the figures that are to be painted on the cards.

*An Occultation of Mercury by Venus May 17, 1737 at the Royal Observatory at Greenwich; by Dr. Bevis. Phil. Trans. N° 450. p. 394. Translated from the Latin.*

App. Time p. m.

H. M. S.

- 1 37 3 The preceding limb of *Venus* passes the meridian, the centre being  $25^{\circ} 46' 35''$  distant from the vertex.  
But the Dr. did not at all see *Mercury* in the telescope.
- 9 4 9 The centre of *Mercury* preceded the preceding limb of *Venus*  $12''$  of time.
- 6 20 The observation repeated, when the centre preceded the same time as before.
- 28 0 *Mercury* running along the parallel thread of the micrometer, the southern cusp of *Venus* was cut by the said thread (Fig. 7. Plate XII.) whence the Dr. gather'd that *Venus* would cover *Mercury* or at least just touch him: He, therefore, remov'd the micrometer, the better to observe the approaching contact with a telescope of 24 foot.

App

App. Time p. m.

H. M. S.

9 43 4 Mercury is but the tenth or twelfth part of *Venus's* diameter distant from her: Afterwards clouds intercepted the view.

51 10 Venus shone out again very bright; and *Mercury* was entirely hid under her: Now clouds again cover *Venus*, and intercept the view of so uncommon a sight.

May 18. P. M.

The meridian distance of the sun from the vertex was  $30^{\circ} 4'$ .

1 31 53 The preceeding limb of *Venus* passes the meridian. The centre distant from the vertex  $25^{\circ} 57' 15''$ .

The Dr. could neither this day see *Mercury* culminate, tho' the sky was very serene.

*N. B.* The distances from the vertex are not free from refractions.

*A new azimuth Compass for finding the Variation of the Compass-needle, at Sea, with greater ease and exactness than by any hitherto contriv'd for that purpose; by Capt. Christopher Middleton. Phil. Trans. No 450. p. 395.*

**T**O discover the declination of the magnetic needle, or variation of the compass at sea, with some tolerable degree of certainty and exactness, is a thing of great use and importance in navigation.

The instruments and methods hitherto made use of for this purpose (as might easily be demonstrated) are subject to several inconveniences, errors and defects: To remedy which, this new azimuth compass was contriv'd, and has by experience been found effectual. It would be needless to give a description of the instrument, the Capt. therefore, only shews the manner of using it, which is, as follows.

1. The instrument must be rectified, or fitted for observation, by turning it about till the 4 cardinal points, that are suspended upon the centre-pin, agree with the 4 cardinal points on the chart, at the bottom of the box: Then will the needle, that shews the magnetic meridian, stand at no degrees; and the east and west points at 90 degrees, on the graduated circle within the

the box: And in this situation it must be kept, as near as may be, during the whole time of the observation.

2. Let the index of the quadrant be placed to that degree of the arch, on the rim of the box, which the observer judges to be nearly equal to the height of the sun, or star, whose azimuth is sought: For, by this means the object will be more readily found.

3. Turn the quadrant round towards the sun or star, till it appear upon the vertical hair within the telescope, to an eye looking thorough the small hole or sight; and then slide the index a little upwards or downwards on the arch, till the object be brought by this means to coincide or touch the visible horizon.

Lastly, the degrees and minutes then markt by the index upon the arch of the quadrant, will shew the altitude of the object, which will always be the same, whether the instrument is in motion or at rest; at the same time the degree cut by the index on the horizontal rim or circumference of the compass-box, will give the magnetical azimuth of the sun or star.

*N. B.* All this may be performed by one person: Whereas the old compass requires several to manage it; which likewise makes it subject to several considerable errors.

How the variation of the needle is found by means of magnetical azimuth and altitude thus obtain'd, is taught in every treatise of navigation: But as the resolution of this problem is somewhat troublesome, and requires such a knowledge of the doctrine of the sphere, as every seaman has not attain'd, the Capt. here exhibits an easy method of discovering the variation of the compass without any manner of calculation.

1. Let the magnetic azimuth of the sun (or any star, when it is near the prime vertical, and considerably elevated above the horizon) be found according to the directions already given, before it arrive at the meridian; and note well the altitude, or let the index remain fixt at the same point on the arch.

2. Find the magnetic azimuth of the sun or star in like manner as before, when it is exactly at the same degree of altitude, after it has pass'd the meridian: And

3. If these two magnetical azimuths are equal, the needle has no variation; if unequal, add them together, and half the sum will be the true azimuth; or subtract the less from the greater, and half the difference will be the variation requir'd. The circumstances of the observation will the more readily discover, whether the declination is easterly or westerly.

*N. B.*

N. B. Tho' it would be very commendable in such as use the sea, to learn the names of most of the principal fix'd stars; yet even that knowledge is not necessary in the use of this instrument: Nor is it needful in this case to know exactly the latitude of the place of observation, provided the difference of latitude between the observations be not very great. It is sufficient that care be taken to observe the same star, before it comes to the meridian, and after it has pass'd it: And for the sake of greater exactness, the above caution should be regarded, to wit, that the star be at some considerable height above the horizon, and likewise near the prime vertical.

*The Number of People in Holland and West-Friesland, as also in Harlem, Gouda and the Hague, drawn from the Bills of Births, Burials, or Marriages in those Places; by M. Kersseboom.* Phil. Trans. N° 450. p. 401.

EVERY body knows to what useful purposes the bills of births and burials at the City of Breslau, the Capital of Silesia, have been applied by Dr. Halley; as also what curious observations both moral, physical and political have been made by Sir William Petty upon the same argument, several years before and by Dr. Arbuthnot and others since. M. Kersseboom hath not only consulted them, but acquainted himself more particularly with Mr. King's observations in Davenant's essays, &c. in order to render himself more capable of making a just estimate in this matter.

He begins with the number of inhabitants in the two provinces of Holland and West-Friesland; these he makes at this time, viz. in 1738, to amount in all to 980,000, and presents the reader with the following table of the particulars.

It exhibits the number of people of all ages, living at the same time, from the birth to extreme old age; which because it shews the chances of mortality within the ages mention'd, he calls the table of contingency of life and death.

## The table of contingency

Of above 90 years of age there are

90	86	500
85	81	2,500
80	76	6,500
75	71	13,000
70	66	20,300
65	61	27,300
60	56	34,300
to inclusive		40,800
55	51	47,000
50	46	53,000
45	41	57,800
40	36	62,500
35	31	67,600
30	27	58,400

The sum above 27 years

491,500

Of

26	21	94,300
20	16	83,400
15	11	87,200
10	6	91,800
5	to birth	131,800

Sum under 27 years of age

488,500

Sum of all the inhabitants

980,000

This table is founded upon three principles, viz. correct observations upon the tables of assignable annuities in Holland, which have been kept there upwards of 125 years; wherein the ages of the persons dying are truly enter'd: Upon a supposition that there are yearly born in the two provinces 28,000 living children; and lastly, that the entire number of inhabitants in any country is to the number of the births as 35 to 1.

This table was sent some time after its composition to Professor S Gravesande to know his thoughts, as well concerning its justness, as its fitness to ascertain the value of annuities on lives; and it met with his approbation.

From

From this table it appears

1. That about half the number of people in the two provinces are above 27 years of age, and consequently that near the other half are under that age.
2. Then by following what hath been observ'd for more than 100 years in *England*, and particularly in *London*, out of 35 children born, 18 of them are boys, and 17 girls, the people in these two provinces will consist of

504,000 Males.	
476,000 Females.	
980,000	

He farther remarks, that it appears from the assignable annuities for lives mentioned before, the females have in all accidents of age liv'd about three or four years longer than the same number of males; which he looks upon to be appointed as a compensation for the continual excess there is in the birth of the males above that of the females.

Having considered the quantity, he then comes to take notice of the quality of these 980,000 inhabitants, and says he sees no reason to differ from the proportion of Mr. King in *Davenant's essays*, who with a great deal of pains and judgment hath divided the people of *England* in the following manner.

The proportion for every 100,000 inhabitants is

Married men and women	34,500
Widowers	1,500
Unmarried young men and children	45,000
Servants	10,500
Travellers, strangers, &c.	4,000
100,000	

If this proportion be admitted, then the number of each sort in *Holland* and *West-Friesland* will be as underneath.

M. Kerseboom adds that the said provinces can raise at this time 220,000 able bodied men, deducting one tenth for diseases and other infirmities: But then he admits persons at 16 years of age; whereas Dr. Halley admits none till 18; per-

sions under that age being generally too weak to bear the fatigues of war, and the weight of arms.

He then proceeds to rectify the mistakes of the learned *Isaac Vossius*, who makes but 550,000 in *Holland*, *West-Friesland*, &c. Disallows Sir *William Petty's* account of the number of people in *London*; because he makes them alone equal to the inhabitants of *Holland* and *West-Friesland* together.

He closes the whole with a table of the present value of annuities upon lives, in proportion to the ordinary or common bonds, charged upon these provinces, and subject to the extraordinary taxes rais'd at this time, viz. 1738.

Hereto is annex'd the degrees of mortality or fatality said to be in the *Hague* and *Haagambagr*, as also the numbers and conditions of the inhabitants of *Amsterdam*, *Harlem*, *Gouda*, and the *Hague*, not omitting *London* at this present time.

The two provinces of <i>Holland</i> & <i>West-Friesl.</i>	<i>Amster-</i> <i>dam</i>	<i>Har-</i> <i>lem.</i>	<i>Gouda.</i>	<i>Hague</i>	<i>London</i>
Married men and women	338000	86156	17420	6900	14850
Widowers	14700	4218	760	300	720
Widows	44100	13858	2280	900	2380
Unmar. youth and children.	441000	93990	22700	9000	16190
Servants	102900	28318	5300	2100	4870
Travellers strangers, &c.	39300	14460	2040	800	2490
Total	980000	241000	50500	20000	41500
					653600

### The fatality of the quarters. Dead.

Spring to summer	307
Summer to the autumnal equinox	286
Autumn to winter	287
Winter to spring	286

The

The fatality of the months 31 years, one with another.

## Dead.

January	102
February	88
March	95
April	77
May	112
June	100
July	92
August	95
September	99
October	93
November	95
December	99

Hence it appears that *March* is less fatal at the *Hague* and *Haagambagt* than *April*; and *April* than *May* and *June*; that *May* is the most fatal month of all; that the remaining months are nearly equal.

It appears farther, that three parts or seasons of the year are very nearly equal; but that the other quarter or season, beginning at the vernal equinox, is more fatal than any of the rest by one fifteenth part.

## Table of annuities for life.

Let the annuity be 100 guilders a year, upon a life under a year old.

Its present value is Upon a life of 5 years to 1 inclusive	Guild.	Guild. Stiv. that is 6 op. cent.
10	6	1667
15	11	1835
20	16	1770
25	21	1667
30	26	1587
35	31	1515
40	36	1429
45	41	1334
50	46	1212
55	51	1093
60	56	971
65	61	840
70	66	709
		570

Ufe

*Question.* Let it be desired to know the present value of any annuity for life, for instance, of 90 guilders a year, which was granted in the year 1703, upon a life then of three years old.

*Answer.* The life now in 1738 is between 37 and 38 years old : Hence the number between 40 and 36 gives 1334 for the present value of an annuity of 100 guilders : Hence  $\frac{1334 \times 90}{100} = 1200$  guilders is the present value of the annuity for that life.

As to that part which treats of the number of inhabitants of *London* Mr. *Maitland* makes the following remarks.

M. *Kersseboom* asserts that the city of *Paris* in 1684, and at the close of the last century, contain'd more inhabitants than the city of *London*.

And to prove that *Paris* contains a greater number of inhabitants than *London*, he has had recourse to the accounts of christenings annually publish'd in both cities, without giving himself the trouble to enquire into the nature of those his authorities ; which if he had done, he would soon have discover'd, that the former is a perfect account ; while the latter is, perhaps, the most defective of any extant : For, the christenings therein mentioned are only those at which the parish clerks are present ; which Mr. *Maitland* is of opinion cannot amount to near two thirds of the whole, as he endeavours to make appear.

The burials in the annex'd table, by some typographical errors in Mr. *Maitland's Political Account of his History of London* p. 535, from which it is taken, being increased 491 above the real number in *Graunt's* account, *Nat. and Polit. Observ.* 3d edit. *Lond.* the sum total whereof amounting to 90350, must be reduced to 89859 : And as in the annex'd term of years, there appears to have died of the plague 1741 *Maitland's Hist. Lond.* p. 535. three and a half of which, Mr. *Maitland* computes would have died of common distempers, out of each hundred ; which amounting to about 61, the same deducted from 89859, the real number of the burials, the sum will be reduced to 89798, which taken from 90883, the total of the christenings, the remaining sum will be 1085, which divided by ten, the medium thereof will be 108 $\frac{1}{2}$ . yearly in favour of the christenings.

A de-

A decenary account of the christenings and burials of *London*,  
in the following years.

Years,	Christen'd.	Buried. Com. Dist.	Buried Plague.	Totals buried:
1626	6701	7400	134	7534
1627	8408	7713	4	7717
1628	8564	7740	3	7743
1629	9901	8771	0	8771
1630	9315	9228	1317	10545
1631	8524	8288	274	8562
1632	9584	9527	8	9535
1633	9997	8392	0	8392
1634	9855	10899	1	10900
1635	100341	10651	0	10651
To. Gen.	908831	886091	1741	90350

This difference in favour of the christenings is owing to the citizens of that time being almost of the same persuasion: But the civil war breaking out soon after, the people separated into a variety of sects, subverted the Church of *England*, and assuming the civil power, establish'd a new Church Government. But the members of the abolish'd Church continuing to baptize among themselves (without reporting their christenings to the new appointed members of the company of parish-clerks) occasioned a very great defect in the account of christenings, annually publish'd by the said parish-clerks.

From this epocha is to be dated the excess of the burials in the bills of mortality over the christenings of *London*. And tho' the Church of *England* was soon after re-establish'd, yet the numerous dissenters of all denominations, preserving in their separation, continued to baptize within themselves, without sending in accounts of their christenings to the restor'd members of the company of parish-clerks: And the schism still continuing, the accounts of the christenings and burials of this city, remain upon the ancient foot of division and imperfection.

Add to this, that not only all the foreign Churches in *London* christen within themselves, but likewise several churches and chappels of the Church of *England*, that do not send in their accounts to the company of parish-clerks; which, together with those of the dissenters and foreigners of all denominations, amount to no less a number than one hundred and eighty one congregations, whose accounts of christenings are nor-

not published. By which it plainly appears, that the vast disparity between the christenings and burials of this city, is not owing, as M. *Kerseboom* vainly imagines, to the residence of the court, convention of parliament, and great resort of people from all parts, but in fact to the great defect above mentioned.

However, from the aforesaid very defective account of the christenings of this city, M. *Kerseboom* has calculated the number of its inhabitants by a medium of the christenings in the years 1684 and 1685; whereby he makes the number at that time amount to five hundred thousand three hundred and fortie four: But as this number is only taken from a medium of two years, he imagines it too great; therefore to reduce the same to the number of four hundred and sixty nine thousand seven hundred, by a medium of twenty years, he has unwarrantably precluded the sum of fourteen thousand seven hundred and two, the number of christenings in the year 1684, to make room for the sum of eleven thousand eight hundred and fifty one, the number of christenings in the year 1674; whereby the number of inhabitants in *London*, is very much lessened.

And as a farther instance of M. *Kerseboom's* partiality in favour of the city of *Paris*, he has calculated the number of its inhabitants (without mentioning the uncertainty of a calculation, founded on a short space of time, as he has done in the case of *London*) at a medium of the christenings for the years 1670, 1671 and 1672; whereby, he makes them at that time amount to six hundred and ten thousand three hundred; adding, the number must have been greater at the end of the last century; as by his extravagant manner of calculation it should be at present.

But as it appears by the above specified ten years account, that the christenings of *London* greatly exceed the burials of that time. Mr. *Maitland* thinks it will not be denied, that they exceed the same at present; especially if we consider, that the number of christenings in *Paris*, at a medium of nine years (preceding that of 1737) exceeding that of the burials ninety eight yearly; notwithstanding that city not only abounds with a vast number of religious of both sexes, who are sworn to celibacy, but likewise many thousand students belonging to the university, who lead a single life: Whereas in *London* there are no such persons to prevent the increase of its inhabitants.

And as in Mr. *Maitland's* political account of *London* p. 540. and 548. it appears, that at a medium of nine years, there are annually buried in *London* 29542, and in *Paris* only 17804, which

which is, 11738 in favour of the former. So must the births in *London* at present (according to the above-specified ten years account, the reasons aforesaid, and the *Paris* account of christenings) yearly exceed those of *Paris* 12310; whereby is shewn, that the inhabitants of *London* exceed those of *Paris* above three fifths in number.

What M. *Kerseboom*'s partiality in favour of the city of *Paris* is owing to, Mr. *Maitland* does not know, unless it be out of pique to Sir *William Petty* (with whom he seems not well pleas'd) for saying, that the city of *London* contain'd as many inhabitants as the province of *Holland* and *West-Friesland*: Which Mr. *Maitland* thinks will be no difficult matter to make appear, by allowing M. *Kerseboom*'s suppos'd number of 28000 children to be annually born in the said province: Whereas according to the above-specified ten years account, and the *Paris* proportion of births, there must be annually born in *London* thirty one thousand and eight children.

Therefore as this number, according to Mr. *Maitland*'s calculation *Hist. Lond.* p. 541, is the produce of 725903, the present number of the inhabitants of *London*, so must 28000, the number of children suppos'd to be born yearly in the province of *Holland* and *West-Friesland*, be the produce of 655485, the present number of the inhabitants of the said province. Notwithstanding M. *Kerseboom* by his excessive and unprecedented reckoning of the births at a thirty fifth part of the people, has calculated them at 980000. Whereas by the ingenious and learned Dr. *Halley*'s method of calculation (which is so highly approv'd of by M. *Kerseboom*, that he seemingly would be thought to make it the standard of his calculations) the inhabitants of the province of *Holland* and *West-Friesland* do not amount to twenty nine times the number of the births; which gives room to suspect, that M. *Kerseboom* has introduced this unheard of excel's, to increase the number of people in the said province of *Holland* and *West-Friesland*.

The END of the TENTH and LAST VOLUME.



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Fig. II.

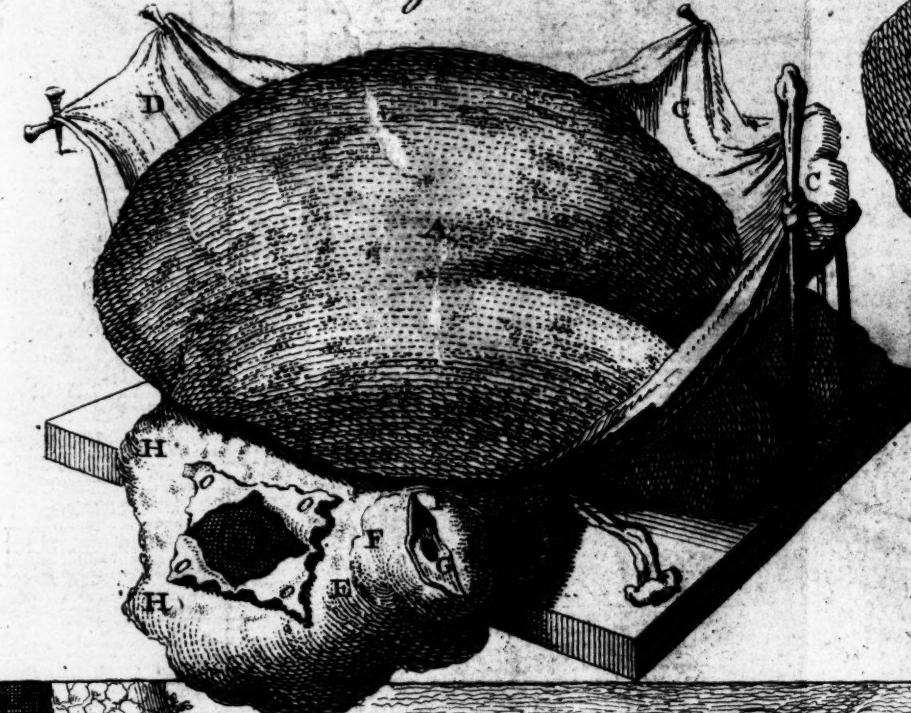


Fig. III.

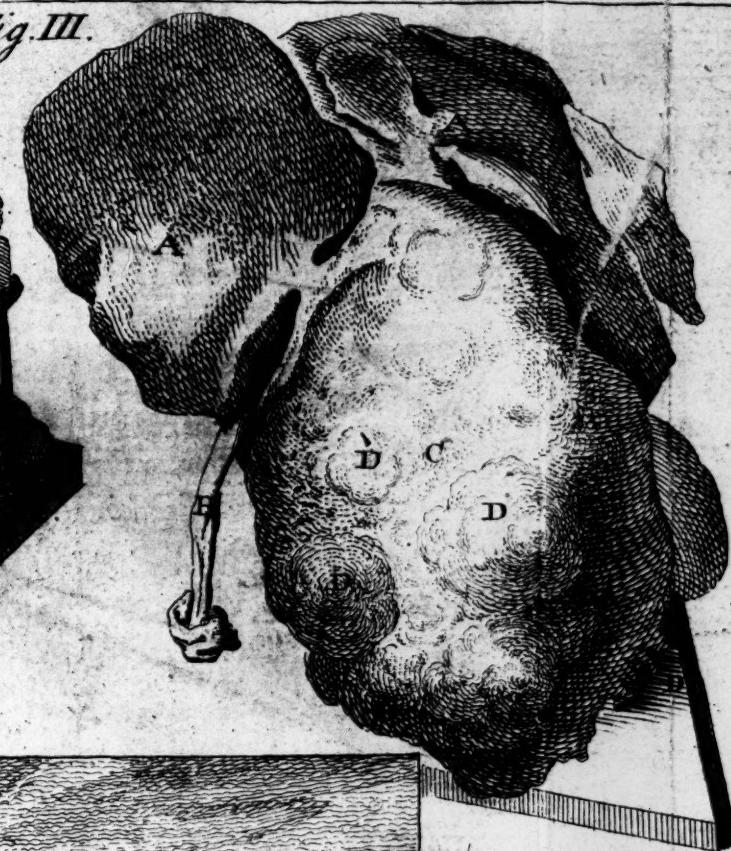


Fig. IV.



Fig. I.

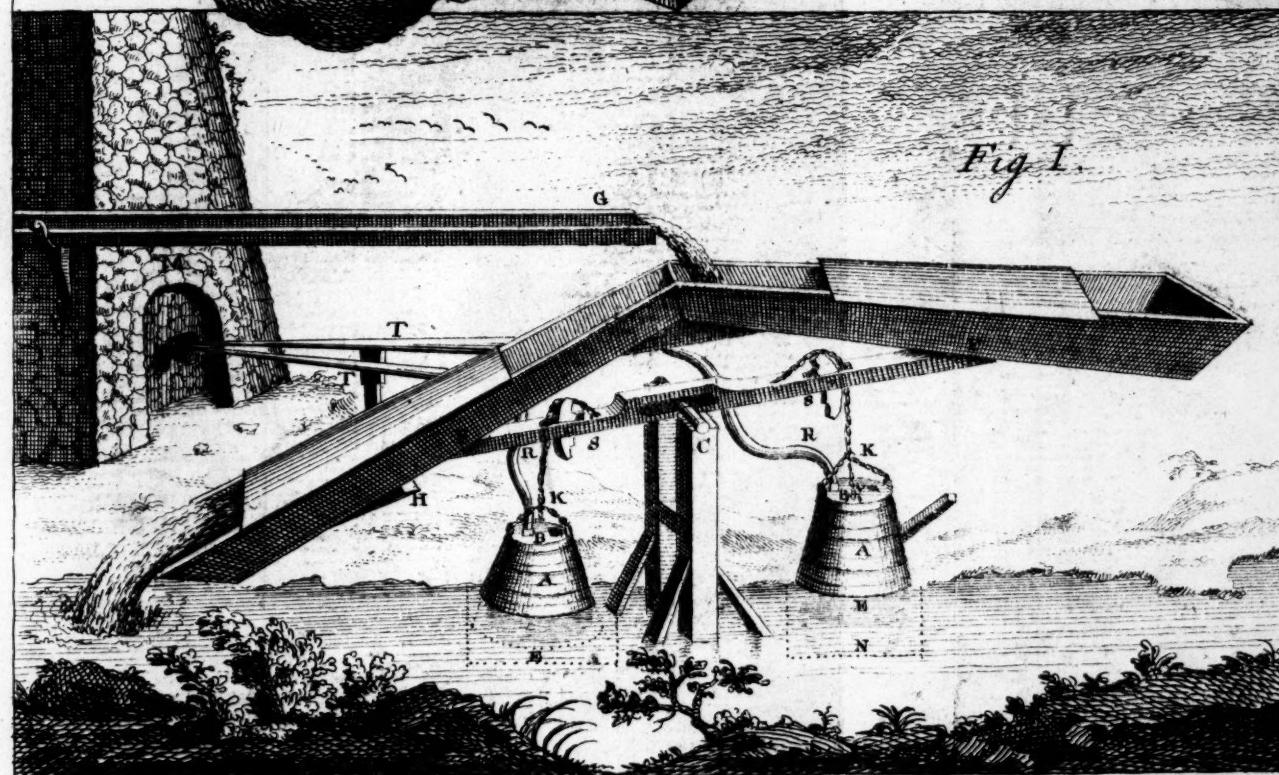
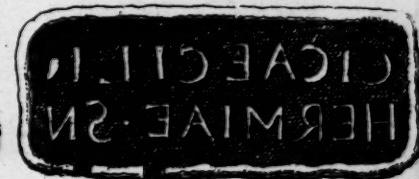
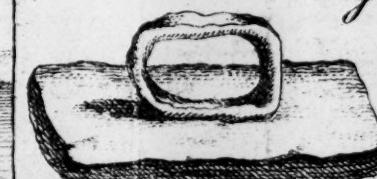
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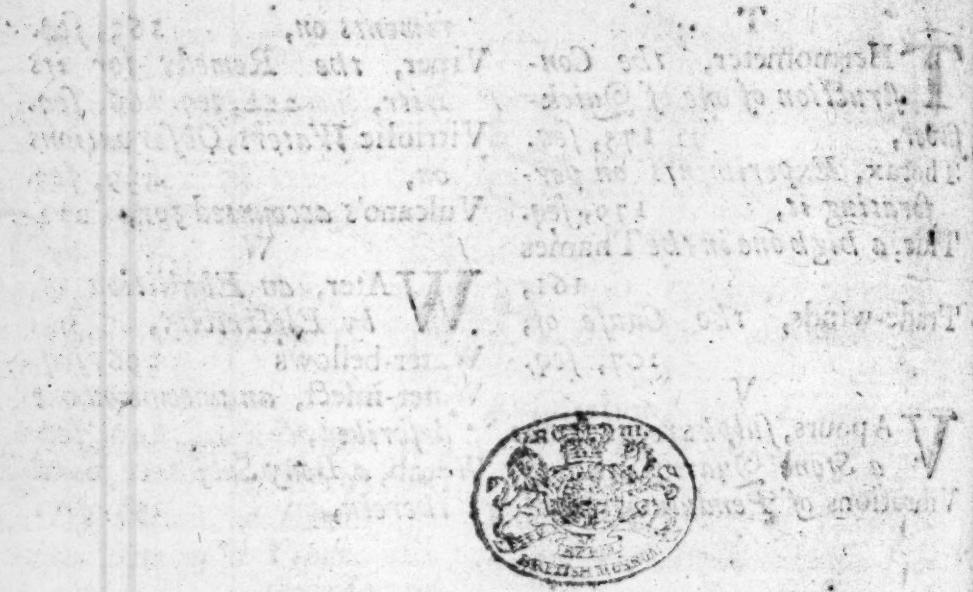
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